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A journal for modern junior and senior high schools

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THE CLEARING HOUSE is published at 450 Ahnaip St., Menasha, Wis. Editorial office: Inor Publishing Co., Incorporated, 207 Fourth Avenue, New York. Published monthly from September through May of each year. Subscription price: \$4.00 a year. Two years for \$6.60 if cash accompanies order. Single copies, 50 cents. Subscription for less than a year will be charged at the single-copy rate. For subscriptions in groups of ten or more, write for special rates. Foreign countries and Canada, \$4.60 a year, payment in American funds. Printed in U.S.A. Entered as second-class matter at the post office at Menasha, Wisconsin, under the act of March 8, 1870.

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The Clearing House

A journal for modern junior and senior high schools

VOL. 27

MAY 1953

No. 9

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NOTICE TO WRITERS

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VOL. 27

MAY 1953

No. 9

A high school's 3 years of experiment:

EMPHASIS *on Moral* *and Spiritual* VALUES

By ELLIS FORD HARTFORD

MERE STATEMENTS about the gravity of a problem or of the serious concern which it gives educators will no longer suffice to introduce an article in a current educational journal. Educators have too many concerns about a plethora of serious problems to permit adequate consideration of ordinary ones. The result is a growing resort to the practices and techniques of the Hollywood press agent, replete with superlatives, slang, and what have you. However, in rare instances the problem discussed is of such fundamental nature and concern that the opening sentences can be justified.

Such is the nature of the problem before American public schools today in the need for adequate emphasis upon the teaching of moral and spiritual values.

Certainly no contemporaneous problem has received more careful consideration from so many serious-minded students of education in this country. Among the possible approaches to the solution of this problem is the so-called "Kentucky Movement." This is simply a program of emphasis upon moral and spiritual values in every aspect of the school's program and work. Experimental schools cooperated with six publicly-supported institutions of teacher

education to develop ways and means of utilizing this approach. The following account of a Kentucky high school's program, which is now in its fourth year, demonstrates one approach to the solution of the problem which concerns many educational leaders.

The First Year of Trial and Error. Before the pilot school began its work, eight members of the faculty, including the principal, were sent to the first workshop on "Moral and Spiritual Values in Education," held at the University of Kentucky in June 1949. The group went to the workshop with many questions; they returned with enthusiasm, some ideas, and the willingness to try to develop and find the answers in their respective teaching situations.

When school opened in September the eight "workshoppers" felt a heavy responsibility. How to interpret the apparently simple philosophy of "emphasis" upon values in everything done in the school to their colleagues, and to pupils and their parents, posed a good-sized problem. As school started there was concern about ways to get all teachers interested in this or that, about what should be the special task of a given department or a specific activity group, and a host of other details. The most

common query, "What is this program, anyway?" was heard over and over. The plausible, simple explanation did not allay these concerns until the faculty got to work upon the day-by-day problems which confronted the school.

The faculty held weekly meetings to discuss and deal with all kinds of problems. Teachers felt free to participate, and school policy reflected the thinking and values of the entire group. Problems which arose were thought through, probable consequences were brought out, and tentative decisions to try this or that course were agreed upon. It was not long until the faculty recognized that this procedure was naturally adapted to wider use.

The faculty decided to set aside alternate meetings for reports from and discussions of the workshop. This resulted in a series of six reports, an over-all presentation, and one from each of the five working committees of the workshop. The principal and college coordinator attended and participated in the discussion. As the presentations proceeded, it was decided that each teacher would begin to record episodes and instances in his own work with students which illustrated an emphasis upon values. These rough notes were assembled and compiled in a "log" by the assistant principal, for possible use in later workshops.

By the time all reports had been finished at the end of the twelfth week of the school term, it was evident that the philosophy of the workshop report had begun to show up in the alternate faculty sessions on school problems. Especially was this true of the guidance and counseling problems and reports which various teachers brought up in faculty discussions. Likewise, it was obvious that at least three departments were finding appropriate means of emphasizing moral and spiritual values as the usual subject-matter content was taught. Thus, the initial concern about how to make a start disappeared as teachers saw they were already making use of the basic philosophy of *em-*

phasis on values in all that took place in the school. Consequently, the faculty decided to continue weekly meetings in which all problems would be brought up and worked out, with a view to developing moral and spiritual values in the school.

While the teachers were getting better understanding of the plan, the general idea was explored with the students and parent groups. It was felt that all could work more intelligently and successfully if the purposes were understood by everyone concerned. The principal addressed a student assembly, giving a very concise and understandable explanation of the emphases which were being made in the school. Teachers encouraged discussion in the ensuing homeroom periods. Questions were listed and discussed by the faculty until answers were found. Discussions between teachers and individual students on informal occasions were further valuable means of getting mutual understanding.

These efforts were immediately followed by contacts with parent groups. The local PTA chapter devoted a full meeting to a discussion of the program and three luncheon clubs in various communities heard addresses by the principal. All groups expressed deep interest in the program and willingness to cooperate.

Other evidences of the desired emphasis upon values became apparent as the first semester unfolded. At times it appeared that the best opportunities to teach values were those normal occasions and instances which arose in the course of the day's experiences. In literature the opportunity to discuss more fully this or that value came to be recognized more often by students and teacher alike. The chance to emphasize better choice among alternative courses of action on the part of students who were involved in behavior problem situations was early recognized by the principal and by certain teachers who accepted responsibility for counseling. Gradually, deliberate planning to emphasize this value in an

academic course and another in a certain textbook was complemented by greater use of counseling opportunities and informal contacts with students as means of teaching values.

Teachers and pupils came to recognize that the life of the school afforded some of the best opportunities for emphasizing values. A good example of this type occurred shortly before the opening of the new cafeteria. The principal called a meeting of all students and pointed out that the pupils would need to think things over and to decide what types of conduct would be best for all concerned and what types of conduct would definitely defeat their purpose. As discussion proceeded, it was agreed that crowding in line and any sort of boisterous conduct were undesirable. It was also agreed that there should be no need for teacher supervision. After the talk and the ensuing discussion the student representatives went to the principal and asked that each student be responsible for his conduct in the cafeteria. The plan which was agreed upon has worked effectively and there has been no need for faculty supervision. The utility of such an approach was gradually adopted for wider use in teaching other moral and spiritual values.

Many events which formerly had been accepted as matters of course became recognized as occasions for emphasizing moral and spiritual values. The All-State Chorus, an annual event for many high schools, provided a good illustration. In 1950, this event at Lexington proved to be the first of many happy and meaningful experiences in appreciation of values (especially through various means of symbolic expression) for the students.

The leader of the chorus was a very capable young man from a big-time radio show. The program he had planned included Irving Berlin's *Give Me Your Tired, Your Poor*, from the musical show *Miss Liberty*, words for which had been taken

EDITOR'S NOTE

In the "Kentucky Movement" a number of experimental public schools have been cooperating with certain teacher-education institutions in the State to develop programs of "emphasis upon the teaching of moral and spiritual values." Dr. Hartford, a professor of education in the College of Education, University of Kentucky, in Lexington, worked with one of the pilot high schools which is now completing its fourth year in the experiment. His report on this school's progress indicates many ways in which moral and spiritual values may be emphasized effectively throughout a secondary school's curricular and extra-curricular program.

from the inscription on the Statue of Liberty, the sonnet "The New Colossus" by Emma Lazarus:

Give me your tired, your poor,
Your huddled masses yearning to breathe free,
The wretched refuse of your teeming shore.
Send these, the homeless, tempest-tossed to me
I lift my lamp beside the golden door!

As the students learned to sing this song they were thrilled deeply, and at its conclusion the whole chorus applauded wildly. They requested it repeatedly during practice sessions and sang it on the final program as if they were inspired by a new light. Both leaders and audience felt their inspiration.

What had happened was significant. Some of the leaders discussed and tried to point out the values. All could sense kindness, generosity, faith in people, sympathy, and loyalty, all principles and values inherent in democracy. It was clear that pupils had gained a new insight into the meaning and ideals of the great American experiment in making and keeping a free country for all.

After their return home the students continued to ask for this selection and shared it with the entire student body. This

was followed by many discussions in class and by homeroom groups about the Statue of Liberty, immigrants to America, the rich contributions of "Americans from many lands," and of democracy, freedom, sympathy, and the like. One observer summarized the episode succinctly: "a little appreciation never ends; it leads on and on to more and better values."

Another good illustration of the program of emphasis which began during the first year was found in the curriculum content. From the start of the present program the girls' physical-education department has emphasized values inherent in the play life and physical activities of students. Emphasis has been made consistently upon values inherent in the experiences pupils have in this department. The consistent returns show in the form of: (1) dependability (acceptance of responsibility); (2) individual achievement; (3) respect for rights, property, and opinions of others; (4) increasing respect for one's own body; (5) understanding of the universe; (6) learning to win and lose graciously; and (7) making better choices and value judgments.

When teachers and pupils began to see the potential values in such common practicable situations as caring for equipment, making rules about safety, choosing physical activities appropriate to one's own aptitudes and interests, playing fair, returning borrowed gear promptly, listening when someone else has an idea, learning about folk dances of the peoples of the globes, improved personal hygiene, and calling the baseline decision honestly, they knew they were on the way. It had become clear that values were learned from such real-life situations and the choices that pupils made therein.

The college coordinator visited the school and met with the entire faculty group twice each month. Gradually it became apparent that the lack of a prepared program was not the obstacle it had seemed, that, in fact, the necessity for "talking things over" to learn

what should be undertaken and *how* led to a good experimental approach. When it was clear that no one had *the* answer, each and everyone could feel that his or her idea was worthy of consideration. The result was that fuller participation, more willingness to try, and marked professional growth followed.

The setting of faculty discussions was characterized by democracy, cordiality and friendliness, and mutual respect. One paramount value—*respect for human personality*—came to be exemplified throughout the school. Gradually the participants came to recognize that pupils had learned much that the teachers had not consciously and deliberately tried to teach. It appeared that the first year's experimental effort had shown encouraging results. In particular, the method employed—"try something and act in light of results"—had proved its worth. The coordinator saw this approach as the only practicable way a democratic-minded faculty could begin to improve the school program.

The Second Year Reflected Confidence. Five teachers represented the faculty in the second workshop. Here they reported on the first year's work, worked as members of the five groups, and planned for improvement and extension of the emphasis upon moral and spiritual values. When school reopened in September 1950, one-third of the teachers were new and the student body had increased significantly. The faculty immediately began another series of reports and discussions of the workshop in terms of the needs and opportunities for use of its findings in the school.

Prominent in this series of discussions was that devoted to one aspect of the workshop reports, the work of the committees on "Sociological Analysis." Consideration was given to findings which showed: (1) how socialization is accomplished (2) in a community setting; (3) that the school is a community, (4) providing many behavior situations involving choice among alterna-

tive courses of action (5) which represent opportunities for developing moral and spiritual values. Discussion resulted in general agreement upon these procedures for analyzing and using behavior episodes for educational purposes:

1. Get report of incident.
2. List the facts.
3. State the problem involved.
4. Discover and identify "values-potential" in the situation.
5. Determine steps needed to realize best values (techniques, procedures).

This approach, used in cooperation with the pupil affected, changed the situation completely. It became an educative experience rather than a merely disciplinary matter. Teachers also found occasions for individual guidance and counseling as an outcome of sociological analysis. As the faculty gained experience in using this method of analysis, they found that it overlapped other approaches. The adequate handling of many behavior problems involved other persons both within and outside the school, and the faculty found it even more necessary to work as a "committee of the whole" upon many problems.

Comparable discussions followed presentation of other reports from the workshop. Some of them were adapted for presentation to the student body, usually at assembly. These "sharing sessions" were well received by the students, and a tradition of conduct in assembly was developed which would have graced a dignified deliberative body. One full period each week was devoted to work upon problems by homeroom groups. The period was the framework for much group counseling, individual guidance, and some sociological analysis. During the year this pattern of homeroom discussion groups provided the basis for a new plan of student government.

By midyear the school achieved a desirable emphasis upon moral and spiritual values in most areas and phases of its work. A report prepared for this period noted that

a wide range of effort was observable in the school.

For instance, the librarian selected new books which emphasized better human relationships, racial and religious tolerance, and understanding of social problems. In the course of supervising the study hall, she observed pupils and helped them to select books which better served their particular circumstances.

The social-science teacher led his classes in work upon units on such community problems as religion, divorce, and drinking. The pupils were encouraged to write papers on such topics as "Purposes of Living" and "Going to School." The group had "jam sessions" on "The Ideal Student" to discuss desirable characteristics and qualities. This teacher's work with students emphasized his pet value, common everyday courtesy. Often he brought up a real-life problem and raised questions or created situations which led to thinking about choice among values.

The report noted that the physical-education teacher had almost reached the point where she could sit on the sideline and allow her class to select their own activities from a basic tentative program. The groups regularly chose persons to handle equipment and made their own safety rules for playing games. The teacher's role appeared when she was needed.

For example, sometimes the pupils would leave out a rule that should have been included. Then the teacher would come in to help. One day she saw a girl start to work on the tumbling mat with her glasses on. She said, "Louise, do you think you will break your glasses?" The girls immediately saw they needed another rule. With the cheerleaders this teacher had emphasized the ability to take criticism from the group and from the sponsor and to evaluate it without becoming upset or hurt.

It was observed that the athletic coach had a good attitude toward the program. On the day of a game, he said, "You know,

it doesn't make so much difference whether we win this game tonight or not, but it is important the way these boys come to look at life five or ten years from now. Whether they feel like adequate and satisfactory persons is the important thing. In preparation for the games I set up high standards and I don't mind using discipline if it is indicated. If a boy learns when to fight hard, when to accept quietly, when to take hold and when to let go, I will have helped him to win the real game." Cooperative discussions of problems of pupils featured the relationships of the coach and teachers.

The teachers of home economics and agriculture had an important advantage in that they worked closely with the homes and families of pupils. They knew the background of each pupil well enough to teach units which included standards and values established for work done by individual pupils. They could stress use of what they were learning in laboratory situations. Completion of each unit was followed by evaluation, chiefly through conferences. This proved to be an inconspicuous way of pointing out values. One of the home-economics teachers kept a specific value uppermost in her own thinking and tried each day to find some way to emphasize happiness in little things.

Little extra efforts paid dividends. For instance, the mathematics teacher usually led his group to spend about fifteen minutes, following an assembly, to formulate conclusions from the program. In this he discovered a pertinent fact, namely, that freshmen do recognize values but often do not think they are important. Another teacher observed that the upperclass students were very much concerned about getting the younger pupils to understand the assembly program, and that they were quick to resent behavior that might reflect on the school. One of the teachers of English habitually wrote a new quotation on the board each week, leaving it to be read without comment. Usually the pupils got the point,

as in this example: "None of us is responsible for all the things that happen to us, but we are responsible for the way we behave when they do happen." In addition, values were pointed out frequently in selections read in the literature classes.

In the music classes the teacher tried each day to help the students to have more confidence in themselves and so to have confidence in their future. This was easy because she always found a good illustration about something or somebody they knew. Music offered a good source of opportunities for this kind of counsel and help. As this teacher saw it, each problem, each conscious choice of alternative courses of action was important in the experience of high-school youth, for these presented the best occasions for choosing among values.

The second year ended with evidence of consistent progress observed by teachers and many pupils. Many comments upon the durable satisfactions which the year had brought were reported in the notes which had been compiled by the coordinator.

The Year of Re-Adjustment. The third year of work by the pilot school was materially influenced by factors and happenings beyond the control of the faculty and principal. Administrative changes and problems of the school district led to shifts and losses of key personnel and the inevitable uncertainty and concern which followed. Three members of the faculty attended the 1951 workshop, but only one was on hand when school opened. Six teachers and the principal were new, and the number of pupils had increased to 385. Only five of the eighteen teachers had attended one of the workshops. Consequently, much of the time and energies of the new principal and teachers were required for organization and orientation. It was expected that much effort toward re-orientation and evaluation of the school program of emphasis upon values would be required, a view which was borne out by later events.

Faculty orientation to the emphasis upon

values occupied three meetings and discussions during the autumn. Discussion of the problems encountered during the opening weeks of school led to recognition that these were appropriate points for emphasis upon values. For example, the first conference with the principal disclosed that the problem of what to do with homeroom periods was a major concern of the faculty. Here the basic philosophy which implied that people learn values in the course of experiences entered the picture. It was suggested that this problem be left to the students—to be thought through by them and reported to the faculty. Thus, the homeroom groups had work to do for several sessions. This project was followed by pursuit of interests which had been proposed and discussed by homeroom groups.

Discussion by the entire faculty brought forward illustrations of how practical learning opportunities arise in every phase of the school's program. Interdepartmental cooperation in developing school programs and special events continued during the year. Among these were the annual fall festival, a "Talent Show," an elaborate Christmas program, an operetta, and a "style show." Some of these events served the purpose of raising funds for school activities and equipment.

Students were able to designate specific values learned through these activities, such as dependability (carrying out one's responsibility), creative expression (creating own dances, stunts, costumes, etc.), appreciation for the fine arts, and cooperation. The teachers tended to agree that what had been learned was more than some nebulous generalized phrases. It appeared that children could hardly learn cooperation more readily than by being engaged in a big group project which included cooperation between teacher and teacher, teacher and pupil, pupil and pupil, group with group—all for the selfish benefit of no one person. Much of this attitude was observed and recognized by the school community.

Attention was given to various ways of emphasizing values at faculty meetings and discussions several times during the year. Some teachers made noteworthy efforts to develop moral and spiritual values in the experiences and activities for which they were responsible. Classes in literature and music had significant discussions to report. There appeared to be some definite carry-over from the experiences of pupils in the homemaking department into the work of youth groups in some of the community churches. Large school projects, such as the senior class excursion to the national capital, were experiences which involved value choices and judgments.

The main event of the year was the visit of a group of seniors to the central high school for Negro youth in an adjoining county, for a day of discussions and conferences. Toward the end of the year the senior class participated in an evaluative study of the school's effort to emphasize values. Student views were studied by use of an "opinionnaire" and by interview with a 20 per cent sample of the class. Findings of this survey were expected to become a starting point in faculty planning for the coming school year.

The trend of events and developments of the year gave reason for an optimistic view of the future of the pilot school. Administrative changes and new policies brought about greater unity in the school system and a favorable response from the community in general. The principal and the teachers who returned to the school provided an experienced nucleus of leadership for continued development of the program during its fourth year.

Some General Comments. The outcomes of educational programs and efforts are not always what was expected nor are the most significant ones always most in evidence. This truth has been rediscovered in the work of the pilot school. Evaluative efforts on the part of all persons concerned with the program would bring to light a wide

variety of findings and a diversity of opinion as to their significance. Consequently, only the most general statements are offered by way of evaluative findings at this point:

1. The work of the pilot school has demonstrated that a rather typical high school can do much to realize moral and spiritual values through emphasis on them in all phases of the school's work.
2. The growth of the teaching personnel in poise, security, and professional interest was marked.
3. The views of seniors show clearly that youth are concerned about values and that they do grow in understanding and ability to choose among alternative values.

4. Any consistent emphasis in one aspect of the school program has stimulating effects upon other phases of its work.

A fitting summary of the program of emphasis in the pilot school may be found in the words of a teacher who has been associated with it from the beginning:

"In many cases the moral and spiritual values program simply improves the general environment; makes people more aware of what they always ought to do; joins the faculty in common bonds of interest in a valuable undertaking."



Extracurricular Teacher Committees of Kirby-Smith Junior High

A school with 1,800 pupils and seventy-four faculty members is very likely to have personnel problems. Departmental barriers mean that teachers are apt to become really well acquainted only with members of their particular subject-matter groups. There is danger, as well, that with so many teachers the individuality of each teacher may not be exploited, with the result that many who might have been led into creative artistry plod along—good old three-fifteeners!

And that is why extracurricular committees came into being at Kirby-Smith Junior High School in Jacksonville, Fla.

The committees are extracurricular in the sense that they deal with problems not provided for in the official schedule, and that work on them is done on the "teacher's time"—not on "school time." A committee develops in response to a "gripe" (verbalized need). When two or three complain about the same thing a committee is born. The principal assigns it a title and adds it to the agenda.

At the first staff meeting of the year the list of committees is presented to the faculty with a request that they register for first, second, and third choices. While a teacher is expected to serve on only one committee, a second and a third choice assure everyone a chance to deal with a problem in which he is already interested. When registration is completed department heads inspect the lists and equalize memberships according to need.

Current committees are fire drill, pupils' handbook, teachers' rest room, teachers' handbook, stu-

dent council and pupil welfare, health, first aid, teacher welfare, and audio-visual aids. At the end of the first year of this plan we noted that each committee had been active, and could cite definite evidence of accomplishment. Our school is a better community because the committees have been working.

Going back a bit, the result of choices is an invigorating mixup of staff members. Department barriers disappear. At the first committee meeting the members often have only one thing in common—a problem about which they all want to do something. However, working together makes firmer friendships than playing together. Before the year is over, greeting acquaintances have become good friends, understanding and respecting one another's qualities. A second important result is the fact that definite needs which concerned the whole school were brought into the open and dealt with by the committees.

No committee makes a formal report at staff meeting. For that reason there is no incentive to make a superficial good showing before the group. The only report received from any committee is the impact of its accomplishment upon the well-being of the school community. The only reward that comes to any member of a committee is that he saw something to be done, accepted the doing as his personal responsibility, and given the opportunity, backed up his insight with his energy.—TERESA RIDDLE and LOUISE RHODES in *Journal of Florida Education Association*.

So You Think You Have an A-V PROGRAM?

By

DAVID P. BARNARD

BUT DO YOU really have an effective program that fits the requirements of your faculty and students? Yes, those of you who are operating large city—or even “small city”—programs, probably do. But how about those of you who are administrators in high schools of 200 or fewer pupils?

“Sure we do,” you may say. “Look, here is our sound projector, and there is our radio-playback over there, and we have a filmstrip projector around here somewhere!”

That’s what I mean! It has been the author’s experience, in visiting rural high schools with enrolments of from 75 to 200 students, that they usually have the basic equipment (although some of it may not be in working order) but are not utilizing it to speed up, broaden, and vitalize the education of the students.

Come with me and let us drop in on a fairly typical rural high school in the upper Midwest. The conversation might well go something like this as we talk with the administrator:

“Do you have an audio-visual program in operation in your school?” I ask pleasantly.

“Oh, yes,” the principal replies, and he goes through the usual routine of indicating what equipment his school has acquired over the years.

“Do your teachers use instructional films regularly as part of their class work?” I continue.

“W-e-l-l, some of our teachers do,” he replies cautiously. “You know how it is, though—a lot of our faculty are afraid of the machines or don’t want to bother with them.” He pauses for a moment, brightens

visibly, and says, “Of course our combination gym and auditorium work well as a projection room—the whole school can see the film with one showing!”

I try not to flinch and make another attempt, “Do you use many rental films from your state university?”

“Well, no, we don’t. My board can’t quite see spending money for film rentals—and besides you know there are a lot of good free ones that we only have to pay return postage on.”

I probe further with this one, “Do you use any of the School of the Air programs?”

“No. We use our radio mostly for an inexpensive dance band at school parties.” After a pause, “Say! Since you’re working with this equipment all the time, maybe you can tell me what is wrong with this. . .”

This man thinks he has an audio-visual program. What is worse, he tells his community that he has! No wonder that we have

EDITOR’S NOTE

As director of audio-visual education at The Stout Institute, Menomonee, Wis., Mr. Barnard has an opportunity to visit numerous high schools in the surrounding region and look into their audio-visual programs. He is concerned particularly about the programs in high schools of 200 or fewer students. (And according to current figures that we obtained from the U. S. Office of Education, almost two-thirds, 63.6%, of U. S. public high schools fall into this size-group.) The author discusses thirteen monkey wrenches that often appear in the audio-visual machinery of these schools.

intelligent parents voicing the often-heard remark, "I don't see why they want to have 'movies' in the school!"

The same uninformed administrator is likely to turn to me and say, "Why don't you fellows preparing teachers teach them how to run this equipment?"

Many is the time we have sent a graduate out to teach, equipped with a basic philosophy and training in the selection, use, and production of audio-visual materials, only to have him, or her, return and say:

"I didn't believe it when you told us what we would find. When I did try to order a film for a specific date to correlate with a unit that I would be teaching at that time, I was told that there were no funds available for film rentals. As an alternative, I tried to select a free film that would be helpful, and when it arrived I was told that the entire school should see it! I was so disgusted that I almost quit. What can I do?"

And what can a new teacher do in a situation like that? If he falls in line he loses his self respect; if he tries to correct the situation he is branded as a "non-conformist who is trying to re-make the school program in his first year of teaching"!

The responsibility for an *effective* audio-visual program lies on the administrator's shoulders. Without his understanding, encouragement, and initiative, no program can be developed and maintained.

As a rural high-school administrator, how would you answer the following questions?

1. Are you *teaching* with films in your school, or are you *showing* films?
2. Are you encouraging your teachers to utilize *instructional* films, or are you a "bargain hunter" for free films exclusively?
3. Do you have an audio-visual coordina-

tor? If so, do you give that person time from his teaching duties to perform the job adequately?

4. Do you make equipment usage relatively simple for your faculty by having a projection club to take care of moving equipment from room to room, and to operate it for the teacher?

5. Have you sold your *community* on the values of audio-visual instruction?

6. Have you sold your school board on the use of audio-visual materials to the point where they are appropriating money for equipment, film rentals, and other expenses?

7. Has your school purchased any new lightweight equipment that can be moved easily, or are you still coaxing along a fifteen-year-old "iron horse"?

8. Is your coordinator helping to supply source information on materials to other teachers?

9. Are you a lunchtime Mickey Mouse addict?

10. Do you have an *evaluation* program for selecting the best materials for a specific teaching situation?

11. Do you know about the latest developments in projection screens that will give good results under subdued light? Or do you feel that a projection room must be pitch black and that the picture on the screen must be as large as you can get it?

12. Are you utilizing audio-visual materials in the *regular* classrooms, or are you still trying to find that "extra room" that you can convert into an audio-visual room?

13. Are you giving your "first year" instructor a chance to demonstrate how *effectively* he can utilize audio-visual materials?

Or, in other words, do you really have an *effective* audio-visual program?



Despite the number of students who sleep through lectures in undergraduate or professional schools, most college teachers assume that the subject matter of their courses is meaningful in itself and presented so that anyone worthy of being in college can learn it.—HARRY L. MILLER in *School and Society*.

INTERNS

120 pupils discuss good and bad points of an internship program

& THEIR STUDENTS

By

JOHN A. PERMENTER and LORENA W. HENDRY

I LIKE TO BE in a class where there is an intern." This was the most characteristic conclusion of a recent student discussion concerning interns at Orlando, Fla., Senior High School.

More than one hundred twenty girls in four sections of senior homemaking contributed ideas and discussed this subject. A large majority of these students had averaged one or more interns a year during their high-school courses, and the interns involved had come from several different Florida colleges and universities.

The girls, when questioned, took surprisingly little interest at first in discussing desirable personality traits of the intern. They seemed more concerned with such matters as techniques of teaching, with motivation, and with methods and practices contributing most to their own learning and understanding, although the students themselves naturally used no pedagogues in expressing these ideas. When questioned directly about the importance of the intern's personality, they said, "Everyone knows all teachers should have desirable personality traits. That is taken for granted."

It finally developed, nevertheless, that courtesy and friendliness were the two most desirable traits in the young intern, according to all student groups questioned. On the other hand, these same pupils talked at great length about sarcasm, which in their estimation was the worst possible trait of an intern or teacher. A tendency to belittle the thoughts or answers of high-school students ran a close second in the list of bad habits. It was considered a serious offense

on the part of intern (or teacher) to encourage or ask for student ideas and then belittle them.

Another trait considered undesirable appeared in the discussions of all groups. The girls did not like the intern to act as though he or she felt superior to them. Since variations of this idea were emphasized many times, the students were questioned further about it. They seemed to resent vaguely the traditional "teacher-pupil" attitude on the part of the intern—along with an opposing and dutiful acceptance of it. The close margin in ages between intern and students was thought to be back of this resentment. Whereas a genuinely friendly relationship between intern and pupils was much preferred, at the same time it was stated that the relationship should be one that would also encourage both respect and obedience from the students. When we suggested that perhaps this so-called "superior" attitude might actually be one of shyness or fear or uncertainty on the part of the intern, the girls insisted that some interns really did feel superior.

On the other hand, the students liked the intern to be self confident because this, they said, gave them confidence in turn. They felt the intern should be given as much responsibility for the class and over the work of the pupils as possible. This also helped the class to feel secure, they stated. At this point student opinion was expressed that the intern should not use too much of his time in grading papers and in preparing reports for the college, but should spend more time developing teaching tech-

niques and working with members of the class.

The girls were also of the opinion that after an intern has been in a school for several weeks and has been given responsibility for the direction of a class, he should also control and prepare the tests of the class during that period. Several examples were given of students getting used to the phraseology, methods, and subject matter stressed by the intern, only to have the tests prepared and given by the directing teacher. Consequently, the students experienced unusual and unexpected difficulty, and some few, they said, even received unwarranted failing grades.

Closely related to this idea was the feeling of some students that the intern and directing teacher should employ the same techniques, at least in teaching certain subjects. This they thought was particularly important in mathematics and typing, subjects in which many pupils are slow or experience difficulties, and to which there are many methods of approach. Changing students abruptly from the teacher's method to an entirely different one of the intern during a six-week period was thought sometimes to be very confusing.

EDITOR'S NOTE

"This report," writes Dr. Permenter, "concerns the attitudes and judgments of high-school seniors about their student teachers—and indirectly about all their teachers. It has been my experience that students themselves often can tell us more accurately what the weaknesses and needs of their school system are than can the so-called experts of the universities and state departments of education who make painstaking studies and submit voluminous reports." Dr. Permenter is an associate professor of education at Florida State University, Tallahassee. Mrs. Hendry teaches at Boone High School, Orlando, Fla.

It was generally felt that no directing teacher (and no one class group) should be given more than one intern during one school year. Some students who had had more than one intern in a particular class within a school year felt the work of that class to be confusing. They said they hardly learned to know their real teacher—that "too many cooks can spoil the broth."

The over-zealous or over-conscientious intern was also discussed by the girls. This type, they said, "worked the students to death and made them nervous." As a result of just such an internship situation a case was cited where one of the best students in a certain mathematics class became confused and had to spend two periods daily in algebra for several weeks to catch up on the problems. The opposite extreme to this type, the too-lenient intern who exacts practically no work, also was cited and mentioned unkindly. When the directing teachers took over from such student teachers at the close of internship, the pupils often felt lost and sometimes almost failed.

Also significantly cited were certain young interns who talked at great length to their classes about their sororities or fraternities and about their other college and campus activities. This, the girls felt, led to over-friendliness and familiarity in class, particularly classes where there were boys, and resulted in loss of control and in discipline problems.

A few interns, the pupils said, criticized the methods and techniques of the experienced directing teacher in front of the class. One such intern was heard to say of her directing teacher, "She is strictly of the old school." The high-school students were highly critical of this attitude and felt it to be "cocky" and "out of line" on the part of the intern. It was also revealed that interns often underestimate the ability of the class and "talk down" to the pupils, but it was readily agreed that most students did try to take advantage of the intern, particularly at first. It was made emphatically clear that

the students thought that the intern should *never* act silly and should *never* allow romance to come into the classroom. It was suggested that sometimes there was a tendency for the male interns to flirt with the high-school girls and the female interns to flirt with the boys.

On the whole, however, all the girls were favorably inclined toward the system of student teachers and internship. They thought interns could be and generally were a help to both teachers and pupils, especially in "hard" subjects like chemistry and mathematics, where the teacher is frequently too busy to explain thoroughly or to give

enough individual or group help. It was even suggested that some interns "stayed on the subject better than the regular teachers" and also "allowed the pupils to do more talking and participating in class," which they liked. It was finally and significantly agreed that many interns brought new life and new ideas into the classroom. Where this vitality and these ideas were acknowledged and utilized by the directing teacher, the students themselves often developed new interest in their class work and in school life generally. All this, the girls gravely concluded, "gave them the courage to go on."

* * Tricks of the Trade * *

By TED GORDON

THUMB TACKS—When you have a number of thumb tacks to press down you may find your thumb better off and the tacks better in if you press down with the flat of a ruler or a book.

REMOVING DECALS—Wet blotters will remove decals, if carefully applied and left overnight. In the morning peel them off slowly.—*Western Family.*

REMEMBERING ANNOUNCEMENTS—I once had no end of trouble remembering to make an often-important general an-

nouncement to the different sections as they came into my room. Sometimes it would take me two or three days to notify all five groups. Now I have six large spring clips nailed to the chalk trough behind my desk, one for each section and one for my home-room. I have a secretary in each class who puts the clip on my desk when she comes into the room. I find it works wonders in returning papers, checking up on specific assignments, and generally keeping my reminder bookkeeping down to a minimum. Once you begin using the clip reminders you find countless adaptations for the system.—*Sidney B. Simon, Bradford, Pa., Senior High School.*

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EDITOR'S NOTE: Readers are invited to submit aids and devices which may be of help to others. Please try to limit contributions to 50 words or fewer—the briefer the better. Original ideas are preferred; if an item is not original, be sure to give your source. This publication reserves all rights to material submitted, and no items will be returned. Address contributions to THE CLEARING HOUSE. Dr. Gordon teaches in East Los Angeles Junior College, Los Angeles, Cal.

LETTER WRITING—To make the instruction in letter writing truly realistic have students bring to class stamped envelopes addressed to friends. When the student has completed his letter in light of a specific interest or need, he submits it to the teacher unsealed. It is then evaluated, sealed, and mailed.—*Charles A. Hogan, Trenton, N.J., High School.*

After four mistakes:

How We "Repatriated" Our SLOW LEARNERS

By

ROBERT L. HOLLOWAY

SLOW LEARNERS can belong to a normal graded school group and still receive the special help they need. This we now know, although it took us many mistakes to find it out.

Euclid Central School has a group of twenty-three special slow learners of junior-high age with IQ's below 75. They are housed in our junior high school of 563 pupils, and they fit in and belong to the regular classes of the school. The pupils are happy and adjusted, their parents are satisfied, and we are pleased to have them with us.

A few short years ago this was not the case. The boys and girls were ashamed of being "specials," parents objected to the classification and refused to have their children in the special class, and we were not pleased that Euclid Central had been chosen as the school to house the retarded group, ungraded group, special class, dummies, or whatever term these low IQ pupils were known by. Here is the story of the transition.

Three years ago the "special class" at one of our elementary schools was overloaded with overage (13 to 16 years) pupils, and the need for junior-high accommodations was apparent. Our school was chosen. We started on our blundering way.

Mistake No. 1. Feeling that the normal junior-high-school day was too long (8:25 A.M. to 3:20 P.M.), we placed this group on the same elementary-school schedule to which they were accustomed (9 A.M. to 3

P.M.). But we found that our charges were hiding in the lavatories from 3 until the 3:20 junior-high dismissal bell, then joining the homeward-bound traffic of normal young people. We found they were arriving at 8 A.M. with their friends and neighbors. When their day was lengthened to the regular hours, they took the first step toward belonging.

Mistake No. 2. Our charges were "ungraded." They were junior-high age and in a junior high school, but belonging to no grade, reporting to their special teacher in the morning, staying there all day except for special shop, home arts, and physical-education classes. At a football game one day, we overheard a group of junior-high girls, obviously more interested in the boys than in obtaining answers to their questions, asking some of our "special boys" what grade they were in. The efforts of the boys to explain without explaining too much were heartbreaking to hear.

Out of this experience came the second step in their belonging. Each pupil was assigned to a grade and a homeroom, no two in the same homeroom if we could help it. After this change they reported with the others to a homeroom at 8:20 A.M. Surely, we thought, we had gone as far as we could in making our "specials" a part of the school.

Mistake No. 3. We did not go far enough! Our seventh and eighth grades are scheduled by blocks, moving as a homeroom unit through the school day. Our charges were

strangers in the homeroom, vanishing each day at the end of the homeroom period. At this point came a major development in our thinking. Why should these pupils have special shop, home arts, and physical-education classes? Couldn't they fit into the regular classes in these areas? Others were there with only slightly higher IQ's. Yes, and why couldn't they be in some of the other classes? Some were very good in music, others in science, some in mathematics, social studies, etc.

Our whole faculty was acquainted with the problem at a faculty meeting. The response was heartening. Certainly they would try it. The special teacher conferred with each teacher to explain where she thought each child could adjust to the regular class—and the experiment was under way. Of course, requirements were changed, but not necessarily "lowered." Different standards were required in some cases, but is that not the proper method for an efficient teacher to use, even within the "normal group"?

Today, as each pupil enters junior high school from the elementary-school special class, he is assigned to a homeroom unit and remains with that unit except for study halls and subjects where we know the adjustment cannot be made. In some cases the child is with his group for very few subjects. In other instances, where he is well adjusted socially, he is in all regular classes, reporting to the "special" room when his classmates report to study hall. This was the big step, and we felt we had done all we could do.

Mistake No. 4. We forgot the parents, however, although this error was corrected concurrently with the previous one. Conferences with parents showed that the parents recognized that their children were happier, talked more, were eager to come to school, but each parent could not quite admit that his child was "different." Too often we heard, "Isn't this unnecessary for my child?" "Won't he snap out of it one of

these days?" Each knew someone who had been a poor student in school and had suddenly "snapped out of it."

Some of our parents then contributed greatly by suggesting a parents' meeting. Meetings of the parents of these children are now held several times each year. Here parents see that the other parents are normal and fine people, they discuss problems they have in common, and they learn to accept their children for what they are. There is almost 100 per cent attendance at these meetings.

The High School. With the pupil accepted by his parents, his teachers, and his classmates, the road through school is more likely to be a happy one. But the one we had built was a dead-end road! After junior high school there was nothing for these pupils except to stay on until they were too old to adjust, then leave school. Now the high school was brought into the picture. At one of the parents' meetings the administration agreed that these pupils could enter the high school and follow an adjusted curriculum similar to the junior-high program. They are now doing just that under the direction of the deans. There is every reason to believe that these boys and girls will receive diplomas with their classmates each year.

Elementary School. Not only has this adjusted curriculum program been applied in the junior high school and the high school, it is now being tried in the elementary

EDITOR'S NOTE

Euclid, Ohio, Central School discovered, a little at a time, that it had been making four mistakes in planning a special ungraded class for slow learners. Mr. Holloway, principal of the school, tells why and how these mistakes were corrected until slow learners became self-respecting members of the student body, enrolled in many of the regular classes.

school. When the intermediate "ungraded group" was transferred to Euclid Central during the present school year, the problem was discussed by our faculty in the light of junior-high experiences. At the suggestion of the teachers, the pupils were transferred individually to regular fourth-, fifth-, and sixth-grade rooms, rather than as a group.

During the first week, while the classroom teachers were getting acquainted with the pupils, the special teacher conferred with the teachers, working out a time schedule for each child to leave the classroom for special work. Each slow learner now reports to a regular classroom and stays there except when he cannot adjust to the work of the group. He leaves the group just as his classmates leave for choir, orchestra, speech,

reading, or hearing therapy. It appears that the program will be just as successful in the elementary as in the secondary schools.

Another Possibility. It has occurred to us that there is another group which needs an adjusted curriculum. The exceptional child (IQ over 135) needs enrichment beyond that which is possible in the regular classroom. Earlier attempts at placing this group apart for "different" education have been frowned upon because of the evils of segregation. Could we not more nearly meet the needs of the exceptional child by having him attend a normal class, but permit him to enjoy broader experiences with a special teacher during the periods when the regular group is at work in those fields in which he is superior?



Pekin High's Freshman English Class for Gifted Students

Gifted children in the freshman group at Pekin [Ill.] Community High School now have a course of study in English designed specifically for them, emphasizing human achievement and intercultural understanding. Two English teachers . . . have prepared a teacher's unit, four units for students which include reading lists and suggested enrichment activities, a unit on effective writing, and a unit on letter writing as a basis for the course work.

The course is offered to those freshmen who have a high IQ and at least a 10th-grade reading level as determined by scores on the Traxler Reading Tests. The reading-writing units are designed to stimulate the various abilities of these rapid learners.

Objectives of the course are: (1) appreciation of the Four Freedoms; (2) appreciation of the leaders and groups who founded America; (3) realization of the opportunities in the free-enterprise philosophy; (4) appreciation of individual merit; (5) realization of his (the superior student's) obligation to society for his gifts, and of his responsibility to society to maintain the American way of life; (6) realization that teachers cannot give students "tailor-made" answers to current problems, but can only teach them to read effectively, to think clearly, and to find reliable source material; (7) improved skill in writing effectively; and (8) development of reading and writing units which will stimulate individual interest and activity.

Movies, television programs, resource persons, pictures and posters, magazines, maps, pen pal letters, bulletin-board displays, discussions, and debates as well as texts and library reference books serve as learning materials for the four units that feature reading.

The four units are: our American heritage, racial understanding and human achievement, individual merit and human achievement, and adjusting to emerging new philosophies in the world we want to live in.

Improvement in writing is planned as a result of unit activities—such as themes, letters of request for materials, pen pal letters, posters, etc.

Errors in pupils' writings will constitute the basis for the teaching program, with the expectation that increased skill in using words, improved skill in effective writing, and improved skill in dictionary and library usage will result.

The letter-writing unit is offered as an approach to intercultural education. Emphasis is on the contributions of all cultures to the development of language; the critical examination of words, word usage, and the variant and shifting meanings of words; evaluation of radio programs and motion pictures for recognition of stereotyping of group traits and characteristics; and analysis of radio and newspaper propaganda for examples of prejudice, intolerance, or discrimination.—*Illinois Education*.

OUR WAY AHEAD:

These studies of family pattern, school type, and labor demand show need of more school democracy

By
PAUL H. LANDIS

CONTRARY TO popular belief it is authoritarianism, not democracy, that has had a long historical tradition. In family, school, church, and government the authoritarian approach to administration has been the accepted pattern. Today these patterns are in conflict in basic social institutions throughout the world. We are aware of this conflict and are in a position to choose between alternative patterns of life. What do we know about the merits of these two systems? Upon what should we base our choice?

In the family, our basic institution, the patriarchal pattern of authority was long the characteristic one in the domestic scene, the family being under the domination of the father. In his absence, the wife imitated his absolutism in family administration.

It is this system of authority that has weakened in the United States for two or more generations. It is the values of this system which clash most severely with those of the democratic approach to child training in home and school.

Regardless of the institution, whether it be government, school, church, or family, one of the essential characteristics of the authoritarian philosophy is that the institution exists first of all for the benefit of those who run it. In the family, it was taken for granted that the children would honor and obey their parents. Much stress was laid on the word "obey." The obligation of child to parent was life-long.

The community supported this approach to family administration. It was the parents'

right to command obedience and honor, even if by force.

In urban-industrial society initiative and individual self-development have become the goals of personality. We have gradually seen the emergence of the democratic pattern, which assumes that the family exists for the benefit of the child. One rarely hears of the values of honor and obedience mentioned in connection with the contemporary family. As a journalist writing in the *Kansas City Times* observed, "One of the first things a man notices in a backward country is that the children are still obeying their parents." In the democratic family, cooperation between parent and child has replaced obedience. Cooperation is actually a more difficult goal to achieve than mere obedience.

Authoritarianism was necessary in an earlier day but is no longer related to the well-being of the family. Many institutions now supplement the family. That children remain subservient to their parents' wishes and needs throughout a lifetime is no longer a requirement of the social system. Even in old age, parents look toward social security rather than to their children as a source of support.

The shift from authoritarianism to democracy has been made in a relatively short period of time. The two systems of values are still often in conflict, although the democratic family has become fairly universal among middle- and upper-class people. It is as yet perhaps more widespread as a philosophy than as a practice.

Among many of us, trained under the authoritarian pattern of the past, there is a tendency to malign the freedom of the child in the democratic family. Some of us long for the well-ordered world in which the word of grown-ups is law.

That day will not come again. If it could, it would not satisfy the demands of the present-day highly individualistic world. Parents who persist in the authoritarian pattern of child training sell society and their sons and daughters short.

A study of over 4,000 Washington high school seniors was recently completed at the State College of Washington.¹ Families of these teen-agers were divided into three groups on the basis of family administrative pattern: 40.4 per cent of the boys and 22.3 per cent of the girls rated their families "democratic"; 38.7 per cent of the boys and 55.6 per cent of girls "intermediate," that is, between democratic and authoritarian. Only 20.8 per cent of the boys and 22.1 per cent of the girls rated their families "authoritarian."²

This study indicates that teen-agers in democratic families have many fewer problems than those in authoritarian families. The young people in democratic families were better adjusted to their parents, and exhibited fewer problems in parent-child relations.

They also experienced fewer problems in the whole range of teen-age adjustments—to peers, community, church, school, social life, and in personal relations generally—than those in authoritarian families.

These findings suggest that in our time, the authoritarian family is failing to meet the fundamental needs of teen-age boys and girls. Probably in an earlier day, when the

environment was more stern, when the family was the unit of survival rather than the individual, the authoritarian family was effective. Today healthy adjustment to the world of people is basic to a happy and successful life. Authoritarianism does not contribute to this adjustment.

A few still question the democratic approach to school administration that has gradually become characteristic of the American education system. In the school, too, the democratic approach seems to be of greater value in preparing the individual for our world. We have not been able to study this problem directly, but did approach it indirectly in comparing adjustments of parochial-school and public-school pupils in the senior-high-school year. It seems probable that parochial-school young people come, by and large, from more authoritarian homes than public-school pupils. One would suspect this because there is much authoritarianism still in religion, particularly in the more ritualistic and more orthodox religious bodies in which the high-school academy has tended to persist.

This comparison of the adjustment problems of the parochial- with the public-school high-school senior showed that the parochial-school people have more problems and more anxieties. Part of these problems are a product of the school situation; some are not. There is some evidence that the parochial school is to an extent custodial, in that it, more often than the public school, draws pupils from broken homes or homes that are otherwise in trouble. This, in itself, would explain some of the problems of the parochial-school group.

While we find evidence of greater respect for parents among parochial-school pupils, they are seldom as close to parents in emotional ties as are public-school young people.

Although happiness and good adjustment are important factors in gauging the relative value of the two disciplinary systems, the real test is a functional one. Which

¹ Paul H. Landis and Carol Stone, "The Relationship of Parental Authority Patterns to Teenage Adjustment." *Washington Agricultural Experiment Stations*, Bulletin No. 538, Pullman, Wash., 1952.

² Authoritarianism was measured by a Guttman scale which was based on a series of multiple-choice items to which young persons responded. These items dealt with various relationships between them and their parents.

system, authoritarian or democratic, produces young people who are best able to function in the society into which they must go?

Dr. John E. Anderson, Director of Child Welfare at the University of Minnesota, has stated that obedience can be purchased cheaply in the adult world. He is implying, of course, that adults can command the submissive obedience of their children if this is what they really want, but initiative and courage are the qualities that bring the highest price in the individualistic world of our day.

These character traits can be found only in those who have opportunity to choose for themselves. Those who are commanded to silence and obedience, always bowing to the will of a superior in family, school, or government, are of less usefulness.

An industrialist, in a recent public address, compared the democratic and authoritarian family patterns in terms of preparing the individual for economic adulthood. He pointed out that if the family fails to develop the individual to the level of self-sufficiency, if the school fails to make him inventive and creative, industry must in the end carry the load and use him with such traits as he has, regardless of whether or not they are what they might be.

Admittedly, industry has always been able to use a considerable proportion of followers. These workers usually have been peasant immigrants from foreign countries, newcomers from the deep south—white, Negro, and Mexicans, all persons who have grown up under authoritarian systems which put little premium on individual initiative and ability to think for oneself.

As industry becomes more complex, there is less room for this class of labor in the American economy. The genius of the American economy is that so many have been developed to the point in individual initiative, in ability to think for themselves, that they have been able to contribute to the inventive process itself, shortcutting the

EDITOR'S NOTE

Dr. Landis presents facts drawn from recent investigations to show the kind of person that authoritarian families and schools tend to produce; the kind favored by democratic families and schools; and the kind of workers in demand today. These facts, he points out, call for renewed efforts to extend democratic practices and organization in our schools. The author is state professor of rural sociology in the State College of Washington, Pullman, Wash.

amount of labor required to produce goods. Little wonder that our workers command a wage almost equal to professional workers and are free and self-respecting persons.

During the early part of World War II, the writer had a part in a farm labor program which transported workers from the Deep South to various farming communities in the eleven western states. A group of Delta Negroes, who had always been under the "boss man," were shipped to the Twin Falls, Ida., irrigation area and placed on farms. Visiting the area later, we inquired concerning the value of this labor and their adjustments to western agriculture. The farmers expressed amazement that human beings could have so little initiative. They indicated that the workers did a job well when they were told exactly what to do. The minute the job was done, they stopped working until shown the next step. They continued to call their employer "boss man" and to expect him to show them every step in the work to be done.

The Idaho farmers had, of course, been accustomed to using labor which had grown up under a more democratic system of work administration.

One hardly need ask which is the more valuable worker in the urban industrial society of our time, or even in our mechanized agricultural society. Certainly the individualistic person, reared under a democratic family and school administration, has

all the advantages when it comes to making the adjustments demanded of our kind of society.

In the political sphere we have had ample opportunity to observe the use authoritarian-minded groups have made of the ballot. These immigrants' vote has been easily bought. When naturalized they have been exploited by vicious political leaders. The only fair preparation for functioning in democratic society is that which comes from a maximum of individual self-development. This alone gives the independence of thought and judgment required to make up

one's own mind on the matter of the ballot.

As one views the world situation and the place of democratic society in it, he must have faith in the initiative and courage of free men or be pessimistic indeed about the future. In many parts of the globe authoritarianism holds full sway in government and the individual's freedom to venture has been replaced by dictatorial command.

Our best insurance is to go even further in training the child to think for himself, to venture and invent to the full limits of his capacity. In any test of strength he is far superior to the commanded robot.

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Findings

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TEXTBOOKS: Of 229 public-school teachers and administrators who replied to a questionnaire of the Textbook Clinic of the American Institute of Graphic Arts, almost all favor a system of using two textbooks in the same class—one for slow learners or readers, and one for average students. But only 20% of those who replied said that they had such a multiple-text system in use.

On the matter of the basic textbook versus a variety of texts or reference books and teaching materials, no trend was indicated in the replies, either in general or in certain subjects. About 60% of respondents reported that basic texts (along with supplementary materials) were used in all standard subjects.

AUDIO-VISUAL USE: In 210 Oklahoma high schools that participated in a study of the Oklahoma Audio-Visual Coordinators Organization, more than 50% of the teachers use films and filmstrips, says R. A. Scott in *Oklahoma Teacher*. Somewhat fewer than 50% of the teachers use recordings, slides, opaque projectors, or flashmeters. Of the 210 schools reporting, 101 have full-time or part-

time audio-visual coordinators. In the other 109 schools, the superintendent directs the audio-visual program in 63 cases, the principal serves in 35 cases, and a teacher or a librarian is responsible in 7 cases—while in 4 schools no one has responsibility for the program.

EXTRA PAY: Some 71% of city and of village school districts in New York State give extra pay to coaches, while 51% of the city districts and 49% of the village districts give extra pay to sponsors of activities other than athletics, such as band or choral music, dramatics, school paper or yearbook. This is what the New York State Teachers Association learned in reports from 90% of the state's city and village districts.

In 20% of city districts and 24% of village districts, load equalization is used instead of extra pay for activity work. More than one-third of city and village districts use some combination of extra pay and load equalization for the purpose.

ROOMERS: Unmarried women teachers tend to live alone as "roomers," according to a study of 477 single women who taught in public schools of 10 urban communities in central New York State, reports George H. Johnson in *School and Society*. Some 56% of these teachers lived in private homes or rooming houses. The large per cent of single teachers living in rented rooms "should be a cause for concern from the mental health viewpoint," says Mr. Johnson, "since such living quarters may frequently offer little of the companionship and sense of belonging associated with a home."

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EDITOR'S NOTE: Good, bad, indifferent or important, there is a great amount of counting studies and other research going on in the field of education. We think readers will be interested in brief, unqualified summaries of some main points in some of the findings. Lack of space prohibits much explanation of methods used, degree of accuracy or conclusiveness, and sometimes even the scope of the study.

SAMOAN *"Heaven sent" teachers take it easy amid exotic "arrows in the speak"*

SCHOOL SAMPLER

By
LORRENE and VIRGEL ORT

AFTER LIVING in an atmosphere charged with speed, surge, and super-dynamic trade names such as Pacemaker, Zipper, Speed Queen, Presto, and Flash, we found ourselves transported into a reverse culture that looked askance at frenzied rushing and gently chided with a softly spoken, "Fai fai le mul" A free translation is "Take it easy!"

In American Samoa there are but two main objects to push (excluding some early offspring of the horseless carriage). These two are other people and/or yourself. The Samoans refuse to be pushed, and climate soon tempers the overly-aggressive personal ambitions of statesiders, so that leaves people and things (including the reluctant chariot) leaning on the original theme of taking life easy! However, by proceeding at a comfortable gait, the Samoan is not easily winded, and his length of performance is good, indeed.

This characteristic has left its mark on the educational program of Samoa's children. Children in Samoa commence school at the age of seven and are graduated from the ninth grade in their middle or late teens. If they are fortunate enough to pass the entrance examinations, four years of additional training await them in the high school.

If fate continues to be benign, post-graduate training may be had in the fields of medicine, dentistry, public health and sanitation, nursing, teaching, vocational shop, and agriculture. The latter four areas of study are available on the island of Tutuila, American Samoa, but the medical sciences necessitate study at Suva, Fiji.

In so many areas of study stateside educators must remember to "take it easy." English, which is the language of the government and the schoolroom, is not the language of the home, and it is certainly not the language of the playground or the cricket field. As English is spoken or read in the classroom, the mental transfer of a thought from one language to another is almost visibly written on the intent faces of the younger children.

In the elementary and junior high schools most textbook material, which is written in English, is carefully taught by Samoan teachers and is diligently learned by Samoan children, but in these first nine years of school conversational English bunches itself into tight little granny knots which are doled out in recitation-awed voices. However, when the students enter high school, their study is committed into the hands of "papalagi" ("Heaven sent" or stateside) teachers. The subsequent "flowering" of English is quite apparent, but some of the "flowers" are rare species!

In Samoa the "g-c," "b-p," and "k-t" sounds are frequently interchanged in everyday Samoan speech. The transfer of this habit to the English language often produces amusing results, as these excerpts from students' papers exemplify:

"Corns are grops that crow on farmers in the center of the United States."

"Noiseless is required in the classroom."

"I observed billows for the children to use in sleeping period."

"Some children were busy doing their seakwork."

Anatomy also suffers from this mix-up of

EDITOR'S NOTE

Mr. and Mrs. Ort, of Pago Pago, Tutuila, American Samoa, would like CLEARING HOUSE readers "up yonder" to know something of what it's like to be teaching "down under" in a Samoan secondary school. Mrs. Ort is director of the Teacher-Training School of American Samoa, and Mr. Ort is assistant director of education for the island group. At about the time you read this, they will be on a round-the-world trip by air.

letters. On preliminary drawings of the human body these amazing labels were found: ribs, pan-grease, call pladder, prain, and inkensils (the last is a unique combination of tonsils and intestines).

Making sure the meaning is thoroughly understood requires diligent cogitating, too. Consider this astute observation:

"The sitting position of the children in their seats is just about the size of the children when bend."

The friendly Samoan does not like to have his train of thought sidetracked by a vocabulary detour. If mental groping fails to net a desired word, the Samoan titillates his imagination with a root word and forces it into double-duty. These are samplings of such verbal substitutions:

"The teacher oralled-out the questions."

"The teacher explained every paragraphs so dis-unitedly that the children's minds can blainly glue it."

"The teacher done excellent work. There were few arrows in his speak."

Dictionary definitions and common usage sometimes tilt with each other as they vie for favor. It took one stateside teacher some time to explain the word "crevice" to his class, and the synonym the Samoan students best understood was "split." Still doubtful that all of the students comprehended the word's true meaning, the instructor asked each member of his class to write a sentence

using the word "crevice." The teacher's doubtful assumptions were confirmed when he read on one paper this sentence: "My friend and I creviced the bill."

Samoans have moments of verbal frugality, too. One pupil who had been overlooked when art materials were being distributed raised his hand and requested, "Paint me, please!" The temptation was great.

Using stateside arithmetic texts sometimes required a good sense of "Fai fai le mu." Quart and pint bottles are found only rarely on the island, eggs and citrus fruit are generally sold in units of ten and not by the dozen, bushels and pecks are not standard units of measure in Samoa, and the language of banking is a fanciful myth to most of the island's children. Then there are story problems that read like this:

To prevent the water in his car radiator from freezing, Mr. Johnson uses a mixture of water and alcohol, 30% of which is alcohol. If the capacity of the radiator is 5 gallons, how many quarts of alcohol does the radiator contain when filled with this mixture?

Such a problem would involve an explanation of winter weather in the north temperate zone, a discussion of suitable clothing for Mr. Johnson, a diagram of car radiators and the principles underlying the construction of same, the full reason for the alcohol-water treatment, an accounting of where this man Johnson got the alcohol (and was the government sure he wasn't drinking it?), and finally there would be a little sigh of pity for that poor fellow Johnson who had to "travail" in such a climate when Samoa offers such ease of living—sans car radiators!

After a mathematical discussion of this magnitude, the teacher himself needs to take it easy and relax, but when the class bell rings another group of curious Samoans comes to class to learn more of the intricacies of figures and, concomitantly, more of the peculiar functioning of western civilization.

The social studies are often ego-deflating for island people, for it is discouraging to find one's homeland so completely dwarfed by the "bigs" of the land mass groups. The old men of Samoa simply refuse to accept the comparative land sizes, and they claim that map makers are a crafty lot. After all, one's homeland is as big as the artist chooses to depict it. Fortunately, Samoans are beginning to travel—a few have gone to stateside schools, more have journeyed to Honolulu, and quite a large number are seeing active duty in Korea and other military outposts.

Science leaves Samoans almost speechless. To think that anyone dared to state that the sun is not the biggest thing in the universe! But science is receiving its greatest boost from the hospital of American Samoa, which offers free treatment to all. Gradually people are breaking their allegiance with the "bush" doctor. "Mu Mu" or elephantiasis is receiving scientific care. Leprosy is

curable when early treatment is given at the leprosarium. Blinded eyes—once treated by a sea-shell's merciless scraping in an effort to cure disease—are rarely found among teen-agers.

The hospital has made haste slowly—it has "taken it easy," but its progress has been steady and thorough. Students are becoming so accustomed to periodical medical examinations and treatments that they will set a new pattern for future generations—a pattern engendered by science, and not by superstition.

All the island's youth work in school plantations where new methods of farming are demonstrated and put into practice. All Samoan students clean and decorate their school homes. And all the adolescents of this Polynesian island sing and dance and play cricket. Perhaps the most currently popular island song, a favorite at cricket games, is a catchy tune called "Fai Fai Le Mu"—"Take It Easy!" Well, why not?



Alas, Poor Teacher

By JACOB C. SOLOVAY

In every class there is a boy
Who drains your teaching of its joy;

Who hates the school, despises work,
And proves the perfect classroom shirk.

Though bells are loud and stern as fate,
Invariably he comes late.

He does not even deign to borrow
The homework due upon the morrow;

Preferring, though it's hardly fitting,
The seat of culture known as sitting.

His hands are bookless, free from care;
His mind is similarly bare;

In one art only all excelling—
The art of being most repelling.

Comes one bright day, so gay and sunny,
He quits the school to loaf for money.

You give three cheers that shake the ceiling,
To indicate your state of feeling.

But soon black anguish clouds your face:
You get a terror in his place.

And thus, reviewing his precursor,
You know you've gone from worse to worser.

WORLD HISTORY

is for 12th-Grade Maturity

By MATT LAGERBERG

TIME AND AGAIN I have been struck with the futility of giving a world-history course to ninth or tenth graders in high school. In our high school we changed world history to the twelfth grade some years ago. Recently I have been more convinced than ever that this grade is the best place for the subject.

Shirley came from a large high school to my world history class this year. After three marking periods, or fifteen weeks in class, the thought suddenly came to her that there was something vaguely familiar about this subject. She promptly went to the high-school office and found that she had taken world history a couple of years ago! She got a grade of 90 in it at that time and was getting about the same grade now.

Shirley must have memorized enough information to pass the course quite satisfactorily, so I wondered whether she was doing it again. I also wondered whether two years hence she might be ready to repeat the business in our junior college. If we had used the same textbook as she had had before, this duplication might have been avoided. I suspect that is how many students recognize or identify subjects they have had two or three years before—by the color of the textbook.

If there had been a transcript of credits filed early in our office we might have been aware of the fact that she had taken world history and reminded her of the fact, of course. But wouldn't you think a student who had studied world history for one whole school year would remember a little, tiny bit of it? Apparently when we give subject matter to students who are too im-

mature to grasp the meaning of the information, they manage to memorize enough by rote so that they can pass an examination and be done with it. I think the better students don't resent this experience, either, for a good memorizer likes to memorize.

The significant fact is that this student came from a good high school, where she had no doubt had all the advantages of audio-visual aids and good teaching. They should have made a more permanent impression than they apparently did. In addition, too, the student was one of the upper third of the class. If any of my former world history students have transferred under like circumstances I hope that some merciful author will forego the mentioning of the teacher's name!

I presume that the reason most high schools offer world history to high-school sophomores is to prepare them for United States history in the eleventh and twelfth grades. The same process is commonly found in the sixth grade, where European history presumably is taught to prepare the seventh graders for United States history. This cyclical repetition might be good in theory, but in practice it doesn't seem to work. A good foundation in United States history is a good preparation for world history. High-school seniors are bound to be concerned about world affairs. The world is practically staring them right in the face. For one thing, the young men are registered or about to be registered for military service anywhere in the world. For another thing, they are mature enough to understand world affairs.

In an earlier phase of European history

teaching in high schools it was common to find the subject divided into two full-year courses—ancient history for freshmen and modern European history for the sophomores. We still have a remnant of that plan: we have eliminated modern European history entirely and moved world history into the twelfth grade, but we still retain ancient history. After all, one can't break with the past too suddenly! Any student may take our ancient history course, and as you might expect, the eleventh- and twelfth-grade students have taken advantage of it and moved in in increasing numbers. Students, when left by themselves, will seek their own levels. But it surprises one to note how many ninth-grade pupils like ancient history.

Judging from the favorable reports about ancient history, a better plan would probably have been to simplify and popularize the modern European history textbooks and leave the subject in the curriculum. The more thorough and the slower the progress of the students in a broad field like world history, the more opportunity there is for human-interest material and for enrichment and adaptation of the subject to the pupils, so that they assimilate the story and like the subject as a result.

One gets the impression, however, that administrators favor cramming it all into one world history course, for one often hears of the great improvements made in a particular high-school curriculum when modern European history and ancient history were combined into one world history. Somehow this streamlining of the curriculum appears to be the most natural way to cut corners. But I believe when you thus abbreviate an already abridged package of information about peoples everywhere in the world, you have to move the subject up to more mature students than sophomores in high school.

Originally it wasn't world history at all, of course, but a history of western civilization. Sometimes the texts hardly mentioned

the Far East, but now that America has become involved there, many texts have added the history of Far Eastern civilization in a couple of easy chapters or so. We might eventually so "improve" the present world history course by spreading it out thinner and thinner so that the best of our twelfth graders will emerge in the same condition as our tenth graders formerly did, completely forgetting that they ever studied the subject! World-history texts are too often selected by well-trained teachers without trial on the students themselves. I have found that pupils invariably pick out a different book than I do because they don't have the background and get an entirely different impression from the text than I do. This situation has contributed, in no small measure, to the lack of permanent impression that world history courses make on high-school sophomores.

World history teachers have long been aware of the fact that they have been battling their heads against a stone wall. If they have an opportunity to follow their world history students through eleventh and twelfth grades they become astounded by the small impression they have made, except for some motion pictures or special projects which still stick in the minds of their former students. Textbook publishers have tried to come to our rescue with easier books, with more pictures and illustrations in them. This is well and good, but I believe it is a method of trying to correct

EDITOR'S NOTE

Alpena, Mich., High School shifted its world history course from the tenth grade to the twelfth grade some years ago. Mr. Lagerberg, who teaches the course, is convinced from his experience that tenth-grade world history is a mistake, and that a sequence in which American history precedes a twelfth-grade course in world history is the most effective educationally.

a mistake by doing the wrong thing still harder. Trying to cover forty or fifty centuries of time in one text certainly limits the amount of simplification one can accomplish. Broad generalizations are bound to be necessary, the kind that tenth graders cannot assimilate.

In our school we delayed the moving of world history to the twelfth grade for no more valid reason than that we couldn't think of something else that sophomores in high school could take in the place of it. The problem was solved with junior business training. A five-week unit in local government, or local history, or social studies was added to the junior business training

course. The unit has a flexible content but puts emphasis upon citizenship training in the immediate world in which the student lives—the school, the home, the town or township, the county, and the state.

It seems to me that citizenship training should expand as the pupil grows up and enlarges his interests from the home to the town to the state to the nation, and finally to the world when he is ready to be graduated and leave school. Isn't this the most natural development of the functional citizenship-training program, instead of trying an upside-down method wherein one starts in a strange and foreign world and then works towards the home scene?

School Spirit

By LOUIS GRANT BRANDES

All the bricks and mortar, lumber and nails, or concrete and steel can't build school spirit. The cleverest architects in the world have not designed a school that will guarantee it. Money alone cannot buy it. Yet many of our schools have it, revolve about it, would be very inadequate without it.

School spirit makes its home in old buildings and new alike. Some schools have never had it, some have seldom been without it, others have had it and lost it, while some have lost and regained it. Some schools had it from their beginning, some found it later, others may never have it.

You could be looking right at a school with school spirit and not realize it. That is, until you knew some of the things that make up school spirit.

School spirit lies beyond the physical surface of a school. It hides behind the walls of school buildings. It mingles with the students of a school wherever they congregate—in the classrooms, in the halls, in student meetings, on the athletic field.

School spirit is indicated by the respect

and courtesy that students show one another, that the students have for their teachers, and that teachers have for their students. Characteristics of school spirit in a school are honesty, cleanliness, happiness, and friendliness among the members of a school. School spirit is reflected in the pride that students, faculty members, and members of a community have in their school and by the pride that students, faculty members, and members of a community have in themselves and in their community.

Producing and maintaining a school spirit in a school is a cooperative undertaking that necessitates the participation of all who make up a school—the students, faculty, parents of students, and the people of a community.

Not every school has good school spirit, but every school should have it. Schools that don't have it should work to get it; schools that do have it should work to keep and improve it. A school cannot be a successful school without it.

PUNCTUATION *Why 50 pages of rules?* AND PERSONALITY

By
MARY GRAHAM LUND

THE WORKBOOK and rule-of-thumb methods of teaching punctuation may be necessary in the grades and even in high school, but certainly college students, even those in remedial English courses, would appreciate a more positive approach than the drill method. A little philosophy should leaven the subject.

It is strange that in an age when language changes are being accelerated, workbooks still insist on absolutes in punctuation that were laid down by an Italian printer, the grandson of Aldus Manutius, in 1566. By 1850 these rules, based on the grammatical structure of Latin, were introduced into the "new" English courses, in which students construed, parsed, and diagrammed masterpieces of English prose and poetry. The old English grammars had at least the excuse for their endless exercises that the student was likely to memorize some selections of literary excellence. The modern workbook contributes no such valuable by-product of learning.

The modern workbook, however, has one thing in common with the old-fashioned grammar: it is not in step with the age. The nineteenth-century grammar was teaching a Latinized usage long after the writers of the age had broken away from it; the workbooks today cling to rules of punctuation which modern writers have discarded.

Shakespeare was willing to leave punctuation to the printer; Shaw was not. Ibsen used dashes with the fine abandon of a schoolgirl, and did not permit the printer to delete them or substitute a more formal punctuation. George Meredith startled

typesetters by using ". . ." to indicate an omitted thought of the speaker. In the fields of technical writing today one finds authors attempting to get along with a minimum number of commas. Even writers of books on education deviate widely from the rules acceptable to makers of tests in "fundamentals" and "minimum essentials" in English—tests which are used by these same educators.

Modern poets have gone to an extreme of personalizing punctuation that makes the emphatic capitals and spaced pauses of the Elizabethans seem tame indeed. Nor can one argue that this trend is confined to a small group of experimental and esoteric writers. One finds exactly the same usage of dots, dashes, and exclamation points in comic books and other "lowbrow" publications.

What can we do to orient the student who is lost in this confusion? Some workbooks have tried to handle the problem in the manner peculiar to the workbook mentality, by adding a section on "over-punctuation." In one workbook this resulted in an exercise to eliminate the comma following a "short introductory element" such as "If he comes," which seemingly contradicted a previous exercise which insisted on the comma after an adverbial clause such as "If he fails to come." The question is, "How many words constitute a 'short introductory element'?" Or should we count syllables? The fact is that workbooks have multiplied the difficulties for the student. They have not merely provided a new tree to climb for a view of every fresh difficulty.

EDITOR'S NOTE

Miss Lund's point is that modern grammar workbooks cling to rules of punctuation that present-day writers have discarded—and that students have to flounder through fifty pages of intricate details on rules of punctuation that were "laid down by an Italian printer" three hundred years ago. The author, a member of the faculty of Sacramento State College, Sacramento, Cal., believes that we shall begin to teach punctuation effectively when we abandon the cumbersome complications and simply teach according to the principle of separation.

but have allowed the trees to send up shoots until the paths of logical thinking are obscured.

Instead of devoting fifty pages or more to helping a student master a number of intricate details governing the use of the period, comma, semicolon, and colon, let us give him a simple guiding principle for their use. These four marks of punctuation may be called the grammatical group, because they are based on the principle of *separation* of thought into logical parts.

The period, and to some extent the semicolon, separate completed statements or ideas (what are usually called sentences). The comma is used to separate parenthetical or *interrupting* elements. The colon (except in a number of arbitrary uses, such as in dates and references) is a mark of *anticipation*. It is used with increasing frequency by modern writers before an explanation: where formerly a semicolon was used to separate closely related thoughts, the colon is used if the additional thought clarifies or explains the first.

If the student will read the rules given in any manual governing the use of these marks of punctuation, he will see that all of the rules come under the principle of separation, that the majority of the rules for the comma are governed by the princi-

ple of separating interrupting elements. A knowledge of grammatical structure may help the student to logical punctuation, but common sense and a careful attention to meaning will do as well.

Additional punctuation marks, such as the exclamation point, the question mark, dashes, parentheses, and marks of ellipsis may be classified as the "rhetorical group." Quotation marks may also fall into this category, since they indicate change of speaker with consequent change in the emotional atmosphere. The increasing use of such marks by poets and writers of comic strips has been noted. Their use in formal and technical writing is highly specialized and governed by strict rules which the student may readily master when he has need of them.

The question of need should govern the serious student's examination of the principles and usages of punctuation marks. He should know where to find the rules he needs when he needs them. He should be able to distinguish between certain arbitrary rules as they apply to various types of writing and the principles which govern general usage. He should be encouraged to write and to punctuate his own writing in a manner that will add to clarity and effectiveness of expression. Only by seeing and feeling his own personal problems can he gain the experience necessary to use punctuation with significance and validity.

Shakespeare was willing to leave punctuation to the printer because the printer probably followed the spoken lines of the actor. If one can find a Shakespearean text that has not been modernized, he will receive considerable assistance in his reading, since words to be stressed are capitalized, spelling helps to give syllabic values, and punctuation indicates pause and stress. It is exactly the method used today by the comic-strip artist and the modern poet, who use punctuation marks beyond the conventional rules in an attempt to com-

municate shades of meaning or feeling which are normally communicated only by the voice.

As English teachers, we have been charged with the inability of our pupils to punctuate. In our desire to inculcate good habits of punctuation, we have amplified rather than simplified the difficulties. In our multiplication of exercises, we have forgotten that "language breeds thought." Or have editors of workbooks consciously reduced examples to the lowest pitch of inanity in order to concentrate thinking on rules? If so, the rules have proved barren indeed.

Business offices have attempted to clarify usage for their office workers by stripping away the verbiage which cloaked the old rules. One miniature handbook for typists has a one-line paragraph for the period, a half-page for the comma, another half-page for semicolon and colon combined. The

principles stressed are separation and clarity.

As English teachers, we have been led to exalt rules at the expense of ideas. The worst calamity that has befallen us, next to the popularity of the objective test, is the mastery philosophy of specific skills. We have chosen smaller and smaller details upon which to concentrate until our approach to the problem of punctuation is comparable to that of the old-fashioned shop teacher who had a boy sawing a block of wood into smaller and smaller pieces until the boy had nothing to show for his work but chips and sawdust. The results of our piecemeal teaching of punctuation are as dry and as useless.

Let us give the student something with which to build: encourage him to write his own thoughts daily, and let him personalize his punctuation as well as his words and his phrases, pointing out to him, not his faults, but the paths to logical thinking.



Remedial Reading Fails

An effort is often made to seek a solution to the problem of the poor reader by turning to a reading clinic for help. Some schools have even established their own reading clinics or have organized special classes for the handicapped reader and employ their own specialists to administer the remedial service. The only thing wrong with such efforts to remove reading deficiencies is that more often than not the children remain the same old problems. The truth is that remedial reading has not lived up to its advance notices and in many quarters has been given up as a bad job.

The fact is now recognized that most failures in reading can be attributed to a developmental lag, and what retarded readers need more than anything else is an opportunity to function at their own level of ability and to develop at their own rate. Provision for such individualized instruction would largely remove the need for remediation. The best remediation is nothing but good teaching adapted to the individual. No reading clinic can offer more than that.—IRVING H. ANDERSON in *University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin*.

Pupil-in-the-Group

You need only to consider the educational setting in which you are working to realize that most of its life and stream of activities are lived in groups—the classroom group, the extracurricular clubs, the faculty meetings, committee meetings, rallies, recreational groups, assemblies, peer groups, cliques, gangs, and crowds.

To get a glimpse of group-centered society among pupils you have only to look at the groupings of all kinds that can be observed when pupils come to, associate in, and leave school. You can stand at a window and watch how pupil society is operating—the two's and three's, the boys assembled here and there wearing insignia to denote some kind of group identity, the teams of players, the cheerleaders. Some groups can be seen coming together from a certain neighborhood, from certain families. Some are composed only of boys, others of girls only, and some are mixed as to sex. . . .

Such observations lead one to admit that personality is meaningless unless viewed in the social scene in which it develops.—JANET A. KELLEY in *Personnel and Guidance Journal*.

A unit outline for teachers:

CIVIL DEFENSE

Instruction in Providence

By ANTHONY J. RUSSO

EDUCATORS AGREE that civil defense is a vital part of citizenship training.¹ This article suggests in a general way the scope of an instructional unit in civil defense, considered in its broadest interpretation.

Such a unit can be taught independently of any subject (e.g., as a series of homeroom programs). However, civil defense must not be thought of as an additional subject in the curriculum. It is in fact only an additional concept to be included in teaching every subject: civil-defense instruction should permeate the entire curriculum rather than be appended as an extra subject—for which time is seldom found in the already crowded school day. Handled this way, civil defense receives the attention it deserves in context with the factors that make it necessary and with no danger of overemphasis, which might lead to unwarranted fear and anxiety.

Civil-defense material can easily be merged with the subject matter of almost every subject of the curriculum. A few suggestions are listed under Topic III of the outlined unit. Most teachers will be able to think of many more.

The outline, of course, has to be adapted to the grade level and maturity of the pupils. Many of the topics (e.g., "America's role in world affairs" and "Atomic energy in war and peace") can be treated only in sketchy fashion in the lower grades, but can be made the subjects of entire units in

the secondary school, if desired. Some instruction in all the topics of the outline is needed at all grade levels, both as motivation for the schools' emergency self-protection program and as part of the schools' long-range citizenship training program. It was for these twin purposes that the outline was developed for the use of teachers in the Providence, R. I., Schools.

Outline of Instructional Unit in Civil Defense

I. Introduction

Americans need a better understanding and appreciation of a new "fact of life"—that the United States mainland for the first time in history can be attacked by a determined enemy. Modern technological advances in the science of warfare have ended for all time the relative security from enemy attack that this country has enjoyed for over 140 years. Distance is no longer an effective barrier to a determined enemy, and devastating attacks from within are now possible as never before because of these same new techniques.

Not only is the United States now vulnerable to enemy attack, but it is certain that it would be the prime target and objective in the next worldwide conflict. It was American industry and its huge productive capacity that determined the outcome of World Wars I and II; and it will be ability to outproduce the enemy that will undoubtedly win in World War III.

¹ *Civil Defense in the Social Studies*, report by a committee of the National Council for the Social Studies, released jointly by the Council and the Federal Civil Defense Administration, Washington, D.C., 1952, p. 3.

In modern war, industrial production facilities are major military targets. As the "arsenal of democracy," America will certainly have more of these targets than any other country.

It is a fact that although soldiers do the hard, dirty fighting on battlefields, modern wars are won in the factories and on the farms. In the last analysis, that means that civilians are as important as soldiers. Then, civilian defense must be as important as military defense. That is exactly the consensus of informed persons: real national security is not possible without an adequate civil defense. Henceforth civil defense must be a permanent and equal partner with the military in the national security organization.

The intelligent citizen of tomorrow must have a knowledge of the implications of modern scientific development in waging war, with especial reference to America's newly acquired vulnerability to attack, stemming both from these scientific developments and from our position of leadership in the world.

II. What to teach

A. Self-protection

1. What to do if air-raid signal is heard—in school, at home, at play, at work—GO TO SHELTER AREA.
 - a. What are the civil defense air-raid signals?
 - b. What are the characteristics of a good shelter area? (Protection is needed against the effects of blast, heat, and radiation.)
2. What to do if attack occurs with no warning—DUCK AND COVER.
 - a. Duck behind or under something.

- b. Cover exposed parts of the body with anything handy.
 - c. Face away from windows and the light.
 - B. An understanding of the purposes and goals of civil defense (Degree of understanding will depend on grade level of pupils.)
 1. What civil defense is

Basically, civil defense is a plan *prepared in advance* to save lives and to minimize the effects of an enemy attack on the United States.
 2. Why civil defense is necessary
 - a. World Wars I and II proved that in modern times industrial production and civilian morale have as much to do with winning a war as an army and a navy. So it is expected that in World War III, the enemy will try to knock out our industries and to break down our morale (*i.e.*, our will to fight) even before they try to defeat our Armed Forces.
 - b. Modern weapons of war are weapons of mass destruction and are most effective against entire populations.
 - (1) Atomic weapons and

EDITOR'S NOTE

Mr. Russo presents the Providence, R. I., instructional unit in civil defense, which is for use in one way or another on all public-school grade levels, and in all subjects of the secondary schools. A teacher in the Providence secondary schools for the past 18 years, he is currently assigned as civil defense consultant of the city's Department of Curriculum Research, to develop the schools' CD program and to serve as liaison between the local CD Council and the schools.

- radiological warfare (against cities and people)
 - (2) Biological and chemical warfare (against people, livestock, and crops)
 - (3) Guided missiles (most secret of all the modern weapons)
 - (4) Hydrogen bombs (still in experimental stage, but very definitely must be taken into account)
 - (5) Increased destructiveness of conventional weapons (explosives and incendiaries)
 - c. Enemy planes can reach every major city in the United States. (The B-36, an intercontinental bomber, a counterpart of which we must assume that the enemy has, has a cruising range of 10,000 miles; many large American industrial cities are only about half that distance from key centers in Russia.²)
 - d. Experience has proved that no matter how strong military defenses are, enemy planes in large numbers will get through them. (cf. London, Berlin, Hamburg, Tokyo in World War II)
 - e. There is always the danger of attacks from within (e.g., fifth columnists and saboteurs).
 - f. The answer: Military defense plus civil defense equals national security.
3. How civil defense will help.
- a. The individual, given all

training possible, does what he can for himself in an emergency.

- (1) Civil defense rests upon the principle of self-protection by the individual, extended to include mutual self-protection on the part of groups.
- (2) The individual must understand the true dangers of the A-bomb and other weapons that the enemy might use.
- (3) The individual must know what to do to protect himself against these dangers. (Preparedness will minimize the effects of an attack by any weapon.)
- b. The family unit, similarly trained, attacks its own problems while also contributing to the organized community effort.
 - (1) The family plans together what to do in an emergency.
 - (2) Members of the family study first aid.
 - (3) Members volunteer for civil defense duties.
 - (4) School is like a family.
- c. The community's civil defense organization works to meet its own crisis, receiving outside help if its facilities are inadequate, or contributing support to neighboring communities under organized state direction.
 - (1) The Providence Civil Defense Council, appointed by the Mayor, has a director, deputy director, assistant directors, and deputy assistant direc-

² According to the *World Almanac* (1952 ed.) the airline distance between Moscow and Chicago is 4,984 miles; between Moscow and New York, 4,662 miles; between Moscow and San Francisco, 5,868 miles.

tors. (With one exception all members serve without pay.)

- (2) Plans are being made by this council for the following emergency services:

Air raid warning, warden, communication, transportation, law enforcement, fire fighting, health, welfare, engineering, rescue, evacuation, training, and mutual aid.

- (3) Plans are rehearsed from time to time to see how they work and to see how they can be improved.

a. Operation Rhode Island—November 1951

b. Operation Seek Cover—May 1952

c. Operation Be Prepared—February 1953

- d. The State and Federal governments contribute assistance in organizational advice, over-all planning, and resources.

- (1) R. I. Council of Defense (appointed by the Governor)

- (2) Federal Civil Defense Administration (FCDA established by Act of Congress, January 1950)

4. How school children can help in civil defense

a. Civil defense is everybody's job. (Why?)

b. School children of all ages can help in civil defense by:

- (1) Learning all they can about it because the more they know, the better they can help themselves, their families, their

friends, and their neighbors.

- (2) Learning all they can in all school subjects—reading, writing, arithmetic, social science, history, health, etc. The more good citizens our country has, the stronger it will be. The stronger our country is, the less likely it is to be attacked by an enemy.

- (3) Taking home all they learn in school. By sharing their learning with their parents, they will encourage them to keep learning too. They might urge them to join the PTA, to volunteer for civil defense work, to study first aid and home nursing. These activities will help make them more valuable citizens, too.

- C. An understanding of some of the larger issues related to civil defense (Degree of understanding will, of course, depend on grade level and maturity of the pupils.)

1. Need of achieving and maintaining lasting peace among nations. (Is not peace the best defense against the atom bomb and all the other horrible weapons of modern warfare?)

2. America's role in world affairs. (What is America doing to help achieve and maintain lasting peace in the world?)

3. Atomic energy in war and peace

- a. What is atomic energy?
- b. Can the development of atomic energy be controlled? (American versus Russian proposals for international

control of atomic energy)

- c. Use of atomic energy for military purposes forebodes the destruction of civilization as we know it.
- d. Development of atomic energy for peaceful purposes has far-reaching implications for the betterment of the world.
 - (1) Socially (*e.g.*, in its use by the medical sciences)
 - (2) Economically (*e.g.*, in the development of low-cost power everywhere, with all that that would mean in raising standards of living)
 - (3) Politically (*e.g.*, in its effect on national rivalries)
4. Need of adjusting to emergency conditions (*e.g.*, the constant threat of war).
(Until world peace is assured, we must be prepared physically and psychologically for any attack on the United States. Civil defense contributes to both physical and psychological preparedness. Preparedness in itself will deter a potential enemy from attacking us, since an enemy who knows that his victim is ready for any emergency will be more likely to avoid open conflict on the battlefield.)

III. Integration of civil defense instruction with regular subjects of the curriculum (A few typical examples are given here.)

A. English

1. Different aspects of civil defense may be made subjects of oral and written compositions, research papers, debates, and group discussions.
2. Civil defense pamphlets may be used as reading texts.

B. Social science, history, civics, and current events

1. Since the need of civil defense stems directly from world political developments and unstable world conditions, greater emphasis might be laid on the study of international relations and America's role in world affairs, with its responsibilities and risks.
2. More attention could very well be directed to the importance of polar geography to the world situation by the use of globes, air-age maps, and reports on the discovery and proposed use of the ice islands.
(How is polar geography related to our national security?)

C. Sciences

1. The sciences are inextricably involved in the problem of civil defense: atomic energy, biological and chemical agents which might be used in warfare, guided missiles are all results of scientific research. Correlation between science and civil defense instruction is perhaps the easiest of all to achieve. Many of these topics already occur in the various science curriculums; all that is needed is emphasis on their bearing to civil defense.
2. It should be understood that all scientific discoveries may be used for either good or evil purposes—in themselves they are merely facts, neither good nor evil. Man must decide how these facts are used—whether for good or for evil.^a

D. Health instruction and physical education

The school health curriculum

^a Harold J. Abrahams, "Science as 'Benefactor' and as 'Villain,'" *THE CLEARING HOUSE*, December 1952, pp. 218-20.

contains much that may be applied to civil defense: First aid, home nursing, safety education, personal health, etc. Additional emphasis must now be given to these topics because they offer the fundamental techniques for self-protection and for minimizing the efforts of enemy attacks by any weapon.

E. Art

Art activities can easily be related to civil defense: drawing of posters and building plans showing routes to shelter areas and the areas themselves, etc.

F. Special programs and assemblies

The observance of many national holidays and other noteworthy events offers opportunities to stress civil defense relationships. A few examples follow:

1. Washington's Birthday—present international relations in the light of Washington's advice to avoid "foreign entanglements" and the implications for civil defense
2. Independence Day—the contribution that civil defense can make to the preservation of our independence
3. World Affairs Week—international tensions and civil defense
4. United Nations Week—collective security and civil defense. Would not the need of civil defense diminish in proportion to the success of the United Nations in maintaining a stable peace?

IV. Bibliography

A. Materials available either from the local or the State civil defense council

1. FCDA Instruction card
2. *If* (leaflet)

3. *What You Can Do Now* (FCDA leaflet)

4. FCDA booklets

- a. *Survival Under Atomic Attack*
- b. *Emergency Action to Save Lives*
- c. *Duck and Cover* (for elementary pupils)

5. Films

- a. *Survival Under Atomic Attack*
- b. *Duck and Cover*
- c. *Atomic Alert*
- d. *You Can Beat the A-Bomb*
- e. *Firefighting for Householders*
- f. *Pattern for Survival*

B. Selected references

1. *Annotated Civil Defense Bibliography for Teachers*, by FCDA, TEB-3-2, Government Printing Office, 20 cents
2. *Education Index*
3. *Atomic Energy, Double Edge Sword of Science*, by R. Will Burnett, Charles E. Merrill Co., Columbus 15, Ohio, 40 cents
4. *Primer of Atomic Energy* (Life Adjustment Booklet) and *Exploring Atomic Energy* (Junior Life Adjustment Booklet), Science Research Associates, Chicago 10, Ill., 40 cents
5. *U. S. Civil Defense*, NSRB report to President, September 1950; basic plan recommended. Government Printing Office, 25 cents
6. *Civil Defense in Schools*, Federal Civil Defense Administration. TM-16-1, Government Printing Office, 15 cents
7. *Civil Defense Plans for School Systems*, National Commission on Safety Education and NEA Research Division, 1201 Six-

- teenth St., N.W., Washington 6, D. C.
8. *Teachers' Guide for Civil Defense Instruction*, Board of Education, Detroit, Mich., 15 cents
 9. *Civil Defense and the School Principal*, report by a committee of the National Association of Secondary School Principals and the Department of Elementary School Principals, Washington, D. C., 1952
 10. *Civil Defense in the Social Studies*, report by a committee of the National Council for the Social Studies, Washington, D. C., 1952
 11. *Science Education in Civil Defense*, report by a committee of the National Science Teachers Association, Washington, D. C., 1952
 12. *Education for Civil Defense in Health Instruction and Physical Education*, report by a committee of the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, Washington, D. C., 1952
 13. *Let's Face It*, prepared by the Emotional Stability Committee of the Metropolitan School Study Council, 525 West 120th St., New York 27, N. Y., 25 cents



Needed: A Readable, Inspiring American History Text

The American high-school student is deprived by his textbooks of the thrill and inspiration of active participation in the American epic. He loses, thereby, the feeling of the steadiness of moral values and the spiritual integrity of living. He has not been permitted contact with the elemental values of American life. . . .

The writer of the conventional history textbook seems incapable (through no fault or deliberate intent of his own) of taking our students into the clash of spirit with circumstance. They seem unable to guide our youth through the great arches of beauty to be found in our story, from which has emerged the American spirit. It is to be admitted that high praise and appreciation are due our scholars for their diligent researches. But their work belongs in a different sphere. Their function is to investigate the materials and the details of history; it is, on the other hand, the function of the literary artist to investigate its meaning. At all times in all lands it is the artists, in the final analysis, who are the real interpreters of their people. They, and only they, can diffuse a certain enchantment of living without which men's minds become shrunken and cold. . . .

But our textbooks do not permit this type of

subjective, inner experience. Where is the student who honestly says, after he has been taken through his American history textbook: "It was truly a rare pleasure to have read and studied this book. It has made a different person of me. It has made me a better American?" True, there are a handful of graduates from our high schools with a deep feeling for the history of our country. They are the small fraction who retain, unquenched, some spark of historical curiosity. But they invariably give the credit for it to some non-school experience in their lives or to the personality and sincerity of their teachers. Never does their basic textbook share in any praise. . . .

Our story needs to be told to our youth in the form of an epic saga. This is the only form which can provide an illuminating glow to the whole story and to each part of it. It is the only form which can express the rhythm which flows from our beautiful land. It is the only form which can reveal the ideals and energies of our great people. It is the only form which can bring into sharp focus our past and our present with a participative emotional experience for our youth which can be retained throughout life.—PAUL R. SCHREIBER in *The Social Studies*.

It saves time and money:

SEMIMICRO in high-school CHEMISTRY

By FRED B. EISEMAN, JR.

THE ADVANTAGES accruing to a high school that adopts the semimicro technique for its chemistry classes have been occasionally discussed in the literature. However, there are many more valid reasons for switching to this new procedure than the mere fact that it is cheaper and easier for the instructor. So compelling are these reasons that we at John Burroughs School have made a thorough transformation to the use of semimicro.

It is true that semimicro results in a considerable saving in both chemicals and equipment to the school. However, if that were the only reason for offering it, the change might be considered questionable in light of the high initial expense and the really considerable amount of labor involved.

Macrochemistry is the technique usually used in high-school chemistry laboratories. It involves the use of large-scale equipment and large quantities of chemicals. Quantities used are not particularly critical to the success of the experiments. Typical equipment used might include 250-milliliter flasks, 8-ounce gas collecting bottles, 10 or 20 grams of a solid reagent, or perhaps 100 milliliters of a liquid reagent. The instructor usually has to prepare the experiment before class time, accumulating the chemicals and placing them in a position for use by the students, who, in turn, must come to the chemical store shelf and help themselves.

Semimicrochemistry has been used in the colleges for about 10 years. It is used

in very few high schools. It involves the use of very small scale equipment and small amounts of chemicals. Typical equipment that we use consists of 50-milliliter flasks, 2-ounce collecting bottles, less than a gram of solid reagent, and one milliliter of liquid reagent. Each student has a complete stock of all chemicals to be used throughout the year. Since the quantities are so small, the chemicals can be arranged in a series of about 100 containers, to fit neatly into each student's desk. All equipment required can similarly be stored in the work space. This eliminates the necessity for the instructor to do any preliminary preparation. It also reduces the amount of moving around in the laboratory, and promotes efficiency.

In order to initiate a change in a basic educational technique such as the chemistry laboratory, the process adopted must necessarily offer distinct advantages over those of the older method. We feel that semimicrochemistry in high school is advantageous for the following reasons:

1. It gives the student practice in precision of manipulation and observation. Macrochemistry, involving the use of large-scale equipment and large quantities of reagents, does not foster exactness. One of the goals of secondary-school chemistry is to train for accurate and precise observation and handling of equipment. In this respect, semimicro offers distinct advantages over macro technique.

2. It frees the instructor from the role of janitor. In the macro laboratory it was

EDITOR'S NOTE

Semimicrochemistry has four educational advantages over the standard kind of macrochemistry taught in high schools, says Mr. Eiseman. He explains why he converted his chemistry laboratory in the John Burroughs School, Clayton, Mo., to semimicrochemistry in 1952, and how the new system has worked out during the current school year. Apparently many colleges, but very few high schools, have turned to the smaller-scale system in the past ten years.

our practice to assemble the chemicals required for the day's experiment on the demonstration table before the laboratory period, together with special equipment not kept in the students' desks. At the end of the period the chemicals had to be returned to storage. This process is time consuming. Since each student working in the semimicro laboratory has a stock of practically every chemical required throughout the year in his own desk, the teacher can more effectively assume the role of teacher and not that of a provider of materials.

3. It allows students to work at their own speed. With the limitations of our macro laboratory, it was necessary for all students to perform the same experiments at the same time. This is not a desirable limitation, considering the rather widely differing abilities and skills of students. With all chemicals and equipment in their desks, the students are able to work at a speed commensurate with their abilities.

4. It speeds up the work of all students. Having all necessary materials in their own desks, they save a great deal of time in such operations as setting up and assembling equipment, separation of solid from liquid by centrifuging, evaporating small quantities of solution to dryness, producing enough of a chemical to study its properties, and cleaning up. There is less moving

about the room and more attention to the task at hand.

In order to store the chemicals in the desks, a simple plywood shelf, supported by three angle-iron brackets, was constructed in each desk. Because of the small sizes, a more complete line of equipment could be provided in each desk than was the case with macro materials.

A survey of the available laboratory manuals indicated a preponderance of the type that requires students to fill in blanks. We felt that this procedure is not conducive to self expression, thoroughness of learning, or individual thinking, in spite of its attractiveness from the standpoint of ease in marking. Therefore, a manual was written especially for the John Burroughs laboratory, covering the 50 experiments usually performed.

The manual consists of little more than directions for performing the experiments, questions to be answered, and a guide for the conclusions to be reached. It does not ask leading questions or give the student any hints as to the outcome of the experiments. The students are expected to make a complete write-up of the experiments on our standard school-laboratory report forms. The manual was run off on a ditto machine and bound for protection and convenience.

Having chosen the experiments and written the manual, we prepared a list of all the chemicals required. With the exception of some volatile solvents and unstable materials such as chlorine water, all of these chemicals were arranged in a kit for each chemistry desk. The kit, in its final form, consists of two trays. A small tray, about 2×6 inches, contains the strong acids and bases in glass-stoppered dropping bottles. The larger tray contains 48 solids in 8-milliliter square glass bottles, 21 solids in 15-milliliter square glass bottles, and 28 liquids and solutions in 15-milliliter square glass dropping bottles.

The bottles were purchased from the

regular stock of one of the scientific supply houses. The filling process, of course, was extremely tedious. Each bottle had to be filled, capped, and labeled twice. The formula of the chemical contained in the bottle was put on a small gummed label on the front of the bottle and varnished. The omission of the name of the chemical and the use of the formula helped to foster familiarity with chemical symbols. In addition, a number was written on top of the cap of each bottle in white ink, corresponding to a key furnished each student for quick identification. Somewhat more than 100 man hours was required for the filling and labeling process. Student help was utilized to some extent.

Rather than buy specially made trays, the requisite containers were readily and neatly made by the school shop, using $\frac{3}{8}$ -inch pine with a coating of varnish. The trays were designed to fit the shelves constructed in the desks, and measured about 9×13 inches. Any dimensions could be used, depending upon the requirements of the individual.

Test-tube racks were made inexpensively by cutting off one-foot lengths from a two by four. Holes for the small test tubes and centrifuge tubes were drilled in one face, and the corners were rounded and sanded. The regular laboratory Bunsen burners are used rather than special micro burners, which can be purchased.

The total expense of providing equipment and chemicals for 20 complete sets was approximately four hundred dollars,

including two micro centrifuges. It is possible that only one of the latter would prove adequate.

In order to eliminate the yearly filling of the large number of bottles, a cabinet in the laboratory has been filled with a stock of chemicals in the usual reagent-size bottles, arranged and numbered so as exactly to duplicate the students' desk kits. The students are instructed to refill any bottle when the supply is low. In addition, another small cabinet is provided to supply the special reagents necessary for some experiments that could not conveniently be supplied in the kits, due to their instability or volatility.

I have been using this technique since last September with a great deal of success. Over thirty-five experiments have been completed. The students are enthusiastic about the idea, and once having adjusted to the exactness in manipulative skills required, most of them would have it no other way.

Particularly interesting has been the students' reaction to the laboratory manual written to accompany the experimental work. It was designed to make the students do as much thinking on their own as possible, and, as such, furnishes little more than directions for performing the experiments. At first the students objected to it on the grounds that it contained too little information to help them. Later on, they came to realize that it was really a blessing in disguise, inasmuch as it made the principles of the experiment very clear by forcing them to do their own thinking.



"Novel" History Course

Because adolescent boys and girls find the textbook often dry and uninteresting, I have been relying more and more on historical novels to breathe life into the subject. A year ago I started the experiment of placing primary emphasis on the novel as the major curricular resource, with the history textbook as a reference work.

Briefly, my method is as follows: At the start of each unit, the students receive a mimeographed list

of suggested books (novels, plays, biographies). Each student also receives a set of questions as a guide to his reading. During the study of each unit (about one month's work), as much time as may be feasible is spent in class on student oral reports. Wherever possible, students illustrate points under discussion by referring to events and incidents they've chanced on in their reading.—MORRIS GALL in *Social Education*.

MERRY SCHOOLMARM

A fable for the knowing

By RUTH SUTHERLAND

MERRY FELT at once gay and apprehensive. This was her first day on her first teaching job. "Position, I suppose I should say," she thought. "I wonder how it will be? I don't know anyone in the school. But"—she shrugged—"I'll soon get acquainted."

She walked along briskly and soon came to a tall building upon which was printed boldly "Mushroom School." She walked to the door and opened it. "Good luck, Merry," she murmured to herself, as she crossed the threshold. "This promises to be a big day for you."

"Take the elevator! Take the elevator!"

Merry stopped, surprised. An elevator in a school building! Whoever heard of such a thing!

"Take the elevator!"

Again she heard the words, in the same clear voice. She looked around to see who was talking and saw that there really was an elevator. Inside was a little gray-haired man. He was smiling broadly and beckoning to her. She thought she might as well use the elevator as tire herself out walking upstairs, so she stepped into the car. Before she had time to turn around the door slammed shut and Merry and the little man were shooting upward at a most amazing speed. Merry had all she could do to keep herself from falling to the floor. She clutched wildly at the side of the car to hold herself up.

The voice spoke again. "Miss Merry Schoolmarm, this is Jonathan Hedman, the principal of the Mushroom School."

The little man bowed.

"How do you do," Merry acknowledged, now holding on firmly. "Who was that? It sounds like the same voice that told me to

take the elevator only a moment ago."

"Oh, that's just Personnel Guidance. You're apt to meet her any place around here. She looks after the pupils and the teachers." He leaned close to Merry and whispered. "She even looks after me. But I don't really need her help."

"Mr. Hedman, kindly interview the young lady and don't make foolish speculations about whether or not you need my help."

"All right, Persy. But I was here long before you were, and doing very well, too." Mr. Hedman winked slyly at Merry. Then he asked, "Who are you? A new teacher?"

Merry was still awed by his exchange of conversation with someone she couldn't see; but she managed to answer that she was the new teacher for freshman English and general science.

"Good. You'll take Miss Nozital's place. We had to get rid of her. The children wouldn't put up with her at all. I don't know what's come over some of these teachers. They seem to think children have nothing to do but study." He eyed Merry apprehensively. "You don't feel that way, do you?"

"Well, I believe they ought to spend some time studying. But I think other activities are important, too," she hastened to add, as he frowned. "After all," she thought, "there's no use disagreeing with him. It's his school, and if he doesn't want any studying done, why should I care? I like to play as well as anyone."

"I'll bet you do," agreed Mr. Hedman, while Merry stammered something about not knowing she had spoken aloud.

"You'll suit us," he added, after a

moment's thought. And he smiled at her. "Thank you," said Merry. "I'll do my best."

She realized, suddenly, that the speed of the car had slackened, until she was able to stand without holding on.

"How much farther up are we going? Won't we stop soon?" Merry was anxious as she realized that they had been going up steadily for quite awhile.

"Well, you're going to teach in High School, aren't you? Of course we have to go up." Mr. Hedman had lost his amiable tone of voice.

The elevator jerked to a stop and Mr. Hedman opened the door, saying, "Here we are!"

Merry stepped unsteadily into the hall.

Mr. Hedman looked around excitedly and announced, "It's almost time for the Parade. Listen! You can hear the music."

Merry listened attentively. "Why should there be a Parade?"

"Because the children enjoy it." He smiled indulgently. Then he nudged Merry. "Listen."

Merry did so, and presently the boom, boom of large drums beat upon her ears. Suddenly from around a corner the band swung into view and the Parade was on.

First came the leader, stepping high, twirling his baton. He was dressed in white, even to his boots—a tall, good-looking boy of striking appearance.

The band players followed him. The smallest members came first, hopping and skipping to keep up with the long strides of their leader. They marched eight abreast, tooting and puffing out their cheeks, jostling one another as they marched.

When the last member of the band had passed by, Merry was astonished to see eleven boys riding in chairs much like jinrikishas, carried by small boys who staggered under the weight of their burdens.

"Who are those boys?" she queried.

"Those," said Mr. Hedman, proudly, "are the Football Players. They're the most im-

portant people in the school. We always carry them around that way."

Next came the student body, an elegant company of young people, dressed in fine white uniforms trimmed with red and gold braid. They were seated upon tall wooden horses which were accoutered with saddles and bridles of bright colored leather studded with jewels. The horses were set up on wheels and were powered by small gasoline engines. As the students laughed and shouted gaily they moved down the hall and past Merry's view.

The sharp report of something hitting the floor drew Merry's eyes to the next group. There was no semblance of order among them. Those boys and girls were on roller skates, darting here and there, laughing, tumbling, and throwing themselves about.

Mr. Hedman admonished. "Better be careful. You can't tell what the Smart Alecks may do if they see you. They don't like new teachers."

"I certainly hope I don't have any of them in my classes," muttered Merry, visions of her none-too-rosy substitute days coming to mind.

"Oh, you won't have any. The Smart Alecks spend half their time in Mr. Pounconem's office—he's the Assistant Principal—and the other half in the Adjustment Room."

EDITOR'S NOTE

Perhaps you have heard of some school that has carried a certain educational practice too far, in your opinion, and you have exclaimed, "Why, that's fantastic!" You might say that the Mushroom School, where Merry Schoolmarm went to teach, is a school in which fantastic practices abound. And yet it has the same problems as some ordinary schools, and in an odd way, no doubt, uses some of the same ideas in coping with them. Miss Sutherland, like Lewis Carroll, by the way, teaches school—in the Des Plaines, Ill., Public Schools.

At that moment Merry's attention was caught by the sight of a little man coming along behind the Smart Alecks, every so often bending to the floor for something which he then put carefully into a small bag he had slung from his neck.

"Who is that?" she inquired with interest.

"That's Mr. Pounconem. I just told you about him."

"Oh, yes. What's he doing?"

"He always goes along behind the Smart Alecks and picks up the chalk they throw. He saves it for them so they won't run out of it. He wouldn't have anything to do if the Smart Alecks didn't throw chalk."

As Mr. Pounconem passed, a huge form blocked Merry's view. She started. "What's that?"

"Don't be alarmed," soothed Mr. Hedman. "That's only Hi Mogul, the Custodian. He's the biggest man in the school."

"He certainly is," agreed Merry, as she shrank against the wall. "He's the biggest man I ever saw."

Then, her attention attracted by a swishing sound, Merry looked back to see about a dozen men and women dressed as acrobats, somersaulting along so rapidly that Merry felt dizzy for them. She was about to ask who they were when Mr. Hedman nudged her and said, "Those are the teachers. You can see our turnover is great."

The teachers vanished down the hall and the Parade was over. Mr. Hedman spoke again. "Just go down this hall and—oops, there goes the buzzer. I'll have to go. Your room is down there." Mr. Hedman waved vaguely, stepped into the elevator and was gone.

Merry started to walk in the direction in which he had pointed. Since there was no one around she decided to try the door of the first room she came to. Stepping up to it she turned the handle and walked in. There she encountered a woman pressing something on an ironing board.

"I beg your pardon," said Merry. "My name is Merry Schoolmarm and I'm going

to take Miss Nozital's place." Then she added hastily, "I suppose you're the Home Economics Teacher."

"Oh, dear, no," answered the other woman. "I'm Miss Splinter, a member of the School Board." She went on ironing.

Merry watched, fascinated, as Miss Splinter tried vainly to make the ends of a scarf meet. Merry knew it should have been easy to do, but somehow the ends resisted all efforts to make them meet. She remarked about it.

"Yes," answered Miss Splinter, despair in her voice. "It's a hopeless task. I'm trying to iron out the difference between what the teachers want and what the School Board can offer."

She laid aside her iron. "I'll try this another time. It's an endless job, you know." She turned to Merry. "As long as you're new here maybe I can show you some of the school."

She took Merry's arm and they walked on to a balcony. As they looked down Merry saw a room in which Mr. Hedman was seated. Before him were the teachers she had seen before. She asked Miss Splinter what they were doing.

"They're discussing salaries."

Merry rested her elbows on the edge of the balcony and again looked into the room. The teachers had suddenly risen and were scrambling to climb a small ladder on one wall.

Merry became so absorbed in what she saw that she leaned too far over and fell down into the room. Upon hearing her land the teachers rushed over to her, some grasping her feet, others talking her arms. They appeared to be alternately trying to pull her down and raise her up.

"Let me alone!" shouted Merry. "Put me down!"

"Put her on the Schedule," called Mr. Hedman.

"Oh, Mr. Hedman, make them put me down," Merry called to him.

"I can't. You have to be on the Schedule.

Do you have your degree? I do hope so."

"Yes, of course, I do," gasped Merry.

"Well, let her feet go, Lower Standards."

With Mr. Hedman's words the teachers who had been holding Merry's feet let them down abruptly. As she started to stand up one teacher jabbed her in the eye.

"For shame, No Degree," remonstrated Mr. Hedman.

Then Mr. Hedman called to the teachers who were holding Merry's arms and directed them to put her on the Schedule; so they pushed her rapidly over to the ladder and, going up first, proceeded to pull her up. She surmised that these teachers were Higher Standards, and even though they were handling her roughly she was glad that they were helping her.

Just then the room rocked alarmingly and the teachers were thrown to the floor. Some of the women screamed.

"Hol!" called Mr. Hedman. "The Worms are at it again!"

"Worms!" exclaimed Merry. "Worms couldn't upset us like that."

"Oh, yes, they could. Those are the Subversive Forces that are undermining the school. Every so often they rock us a bit."

Mr. Hedman turned to the teachers. "We'll get on with our meeting."

As the teachers sat down one spoke. "Let's appoint a committee to see what can be done."

"We have a committee, Miss Smith. It's made up of the members of the Local Community who are even now supporting the school."

"Then why were we nearly upset, Mr. Hedman?" Miss Smith sounded concerned.

"I suppose someone just relaxed a little and the Worms continued to bore under us."

"Can't we do something more?" This time it was a man speaking.

"We're trying. You know what a progressive school we have here."

"Yes, but what good will that do us?" the same man asked.

"Well, just last week I met with some members of the PTA. We arranged to put the school on wheels, so if the people won't come to the school we can proceed to take the school to the people." Mr. Hedman ended triumphantly.

Merry's mind visualized a huge truck with a school on top, driving around town, stopping at every house and store. At this imaginary sight she almost laughed aloud and decided she had better leave the room before she hurt the teachers' feelings.

She went out into the hall. There she saw a door on her right. Thinking it might be her classroom, she opened it and stepped in. She spoke to the girl she saw there. "What's your name?" she asked.

"Just call me Average. Everyone does."

"What a queer name."

"Oh, no. It's quite an ordinary one."

After a moment Average inquired, "Who are you?"

"I'm Miss Schoolmarm. I've come to take over Miss Nozital's English and General Science classes."

"Goody!" cried Average, clapping her hands. "I'll like you, I know. You don't look a bit like Miss Nozital did. She—"

Here Merry stopped her. She had wasted enough time as it was. "I hope you will like me," she answered. "And now, let's get to work." She looked for her desk. It wasn't anywhere around. She questioned Average.

"Teachers don't have desks in this school. It isn't good pedagogy to sit down when you teach; and besides, if you had a desk you'd only put books and papers on it and clutter it all up."

"But I can't just stand up here and talk to the class. I ought to have something upon which to place the materials I'm using. A teacher needs certain equipment for teaching, you know."

Merry looked hopefully at Average, who got up and opened a cupboard. "If you want something this is what the other teacher used." She pulled out a rough stand made of two uprights, a top board, and a

lower cross piece which gave it flimsy support. It wasn't very substantial, but Merry decided it would have to do.

While they had been talking the class had quietly assembled. Merry turned to them. "Good morning," she began.

A chorus of thirty-five voices called back, "Good morning."

Merry rapped on the stand with her pencil and immediately thirty-five pencils rapped on thirty-five desks. Merry shouted, "Quiet, please," and received thirty-five shouts in return.

"What's the matter with them?" she begged of Average.

"They always do whatever the teacher does. That's how they learn, by imitating. If you want them to be quiet you will have to be quiet, too."

"I never heard of such a thing," exclaimed Merry. "I can't teach them unless they are quiet. What shall I do?"

Average had the solution. "Give them a test."

Merry protested. "But I haven't given them anything I can test them on. What did the other teacher do?"

"Oh, she gave them books and let them study."

"That sounds like a good idea. Let's get them out. Do you have the keys?"

"Yes. Here they are."

While Merry stood wide-eyed, Average opened a second cupboard and out stepped the General Science books, in strict military order. Each book was a foot high, and wore an exact replica of a United States Army General's uniform. As the first book dropped to the floor it stopped and began counting off the number of books, as each in turn saluted him.

Average uttered a little shriek, whereat the books shuddered and fell over. Average picked up those on the floor, put them back into the cupboard, and locked the door.

"I forgot we changed the books around yesterday. You want the English books, don't you?" She proceeded to open another

cupboard and called, "Are you there?"

"We jolly well are," came the response, and there came jumping from the cupboard a stream of books, also a foot in height, but wearing evening dress, with top hat, monocle, and cane. The books scurried over to the children and jumped upon a railing at the front of each desk, a railing designed, apparently, to leave the children free from holding their books.

Merry's amazement at this spectacle was cut short by the entrance of a young woman. Average jumped up and called her over. She introduced her to Mary as Elizabeth, the office girl.

Elizabeth handed Merry a card and said, "This belongs to Joey. He lost his program card."

This must have been a daily occurrence, for Average called to the group, "Joey lost his program card!"

At that the class started to sing the tune of "Three Blind Mice":

He lost his program card,
He lost his program card;
He can't find it at all,
He can't find it at all.
He's careless as the deuce, you see;
He lost his program card, tee hee.
He lost his program card,
He lost his program card.

The class enjoyed itself for several minutes; then Average rushed to the front of the room. She began a series of calisthenics, at which the class rose and followed her actions, as if such procedure was the usual thing. Finally Average announced, "That's the end of the Activity Program for today. English Books, return to the bookcase at once."

The books scuttled over to the cupboard and began climbing up. A sudden commotion ensued, and out jumped a Biology book in the shape of a Frog, which made straight for Merry, croaking as it came. With each jump it croaked louder and doubled in size, until it was twice as large

as Merry. The Frog jumped upon her and started pommeling her while she struggled fearfully to escape.

"Goodness, Merry, you aren't going to sleep all day, are you?"

"Wha-a-at? Where am I? Where's that frog?"

"I don't know anything about a frog, but

I think you'd better get up or you'll be late for school."

"Well, thank goodness, it was only a dream!" Merry exclaimed, now fully awake. "I've never spent such a day—or night, I mean." She faced her mother with determination. "After what I've been through I'll never again grumble about teaching in any ordinary school!"



Classroom Walls: "Despair Brown" and "Dirty Putty" Linger On

But what happens when we step inside the average classroom? At best it is dull; all too often it is downright depressing. The better rooms are at least light in color, having Washed-Out Green or Pasty-Buff walls. The less desirable are decorated in shades of Despair Brown, Depressing Grey, and Dirty Putty. Why?

Time was when colored paints and materials were difficult and expensive to manufacture; color was regarded as a blandishment of the devil not proper for children; and in those days education was viewed as a dull necessity, never as a pleasant or stimulating experience. Today we have processes of manufacture that produce good color inexpensively.

Color is now seen to be a part of healthy living, and our ideas of education no longer make school the grim tedium it once was. . . .

Most schools today are planned for efficient lighting and ventilation; the questions of soundproofing and ease of maintenance have been considered. Some are even aesthetically stimulating from the outside. Yet inside—in the classrooms, corridors, dining halls, and offices—the old-style oatmeal dullness persists; a meaningless carry-over from a past that is in direct opposition to our contemporary insights into education and psychology, and also society.—DAVID GUILLAUME in *Hawaii Educational Review*.

School Landscaping: Budget From the Beginning

Many people interested in civic beauty have asked us the reason for the apparent neglect in the appearance of the grounds surrounding public schools. Our answer has always been "The cost of the physical plant has evidently overrun the estimated cost of the building so that something has to suffer—the grounds."

To satisfy our own curiosity as to the reason for this neglect we have asked several "key figures" charged with the responsibility for the appearance of the buildings and grounds. Some of the interesting answers received were:

1. Let the Outdoor Circle do it.
2. There is no fund . . . for such work.
3. The parent-teacher organization of the school should do it.
4. Hoodlums will destroy all attempts at beautification.
5. Ground improvement means walks and roads.
6. Grassing is sufficient.

7. We have no maintenance funds.
8. Location does not warrant it.
9. The Department of Public Instruction does not seem interested in outside appearances.

All of the foregoing fall into the category of workings of a bureaucracy—"buck passing," to use a common term. Singly they could be answered with several irrefutable statements. . . .

What is the answer? Properly qualified persons should be consulted from the start of the project to its completion; these persons should be by education and experience able to work with the board of education, the architects, and the county building department to bring the building and grounds into a finished picture which would do credit to all. Funds should be set aside in every project for the proper development of a landscape plan. Maintenance funds should be allotted for continuing the picture as envisioned in the plan.—ROBERT O. THOMPSON in *Hawaii Educational Review*.

WRITERS on TRIAL:

Class prosecutes Poe, et al., for realism

By

JOSEPH R. CASEY

ONE DAY while I was planning a review of American poetry with my Junior English class a student remarked, "It's a pity that Mamie [Sandburg's creation] didn't find a boy friend in Chicago."

A boy retorted, "We are studying real life in poetry. That's how it happens in life."

But the girls were insisting that youth needs the romantic element; there is plenty of time left in life for realism. Out of this simple discussion arose a dramatic germ which gave birth to an original play.

The class thought that the poets Poe, Robinson, and Sandburg, and Hawthorne the author, should be condemned by a jury for the alleged crime of brutal realism; of not giving youth a fair deal in the romance of living. On second thought, the class suggested that the authors themselves be placed in the situations which they gave their characters. The theme, then, of the student play was a plea for eternal Romanticism.

Groups were assigned to explore and develop the idea, and in the various committees many suggestions were bantered about. Finally there was evolved a short two-act play designed for a running time of approximately forty to forty-five minutes. This time limit was necessary, since the class thought it would be good enough for an assembly program. At least, the assembly was—in part—good motivation.

The first act was the jury trial, with the authors on the defense bench. The witnesses, all portrayed by the students, were Miniver Cheevy, Annabel Lee, Hester Prynne, and Mamie. It was necessary to limit the number of witnesses because of the time requirement and dramatic possi-

bilities. A dramatic entrance was staged by Hester with her baby girl, Pearl, before the audience and the jury. Both students were realistically made up in Puritan dress. Hester wore a large letter "A" on her breast, and the crimson letter was quite pronounced. Of course, she condemned Hawthorne for her plight and attempted to elicit the sympathy of the jury and the audience. Hawthorne, who followed her to the witness chair, pleaded realism and maintained that literature needs healthy true-to-life situations.

Poe was next tried on his theme that the death of a beautiful woman, especially a very young woman, was an ideal subject in poetry. His creation, Annabel Lee, played tenderly and pathetically, moved the jury and audience with a passionate plea to live and find romance, as most young girls are wont. The defense attorney had considerable difficulty in weakening Poe's premise. The student who portrayed Poe played the poet as a lonely, weary figure. I think there were some in the audience who felt sorry for Poe. Naturally, to heighten the dramatic action the prosecuting attorney and the defense engaged in verbal tiffs and threats of force, with melodramatic gestures to top them off.

Robinson, who chose misfits in life for his short sketches, was accused by Miniver Cheevy of injustice in condemning him to a barren present and future, with romance only to be found in the dreamy past of noble knights and lovely ladies. Miniver was really dressed for the part—a desolate figure of frustration. The poet, however, stoutly maintained that the misfits are part and parcel of modern life. In fact Robinson,

interpreted by an unpredictable boy, attempted to give examples of a few "bar flies." The prosecuting attorney had some anxious moments in this *ad lib* exchange. The audience enjoyed this immensely.

Mamie, the girl from a small Indiana town who hungered for romance in the big city (Chicago), was truly the symbol of pathos. She accused Sandburg of savage realism, of wrecking the spark of romance which every young girl nurtures in her heart. It was a beautiful dramatic scene as Mamie sobbed her story of frustration. Her emotional display caused Sandburg some nervous moments in the witness chair. However, he vigorously defended his theme and challenged the prosecuting attorney to take the jury to Chicago and see the thousands of Mamies walking the streets.

The first scene of the first act closed with the jury retiring for the verdict.

The second scene, a short one, was played on a semi-darkened stage, lighted only by a few baby spots. The four writers faced the judge; the jury returned with the verdict of "guilty," and the condemned quartet, with their attorney, ran the gamut of human emotions, from extreme grief and prostration to vehement charges of injustice and unfair play.

The second act portrayed the plight of the condemned as they carried out their sentence—to live the lives of their characters. Poe was married in a double ceremony to a very ugly girl, while Annabel Lee captured a very handsome man. The wedding did not go smoothly, as Poe forcefully objected, but his woman was very determined. Immediately following the wedding, alternate "freeze" scenes were used. On the stage proper, Robinson played Miniver Cheevy in a bar room, lamenting his frustrated present and reveling with a bottle in the romantic past. Sandburg was a clerk in a department store in Chicago. Two women shoppers gave him a hectic time. Both scenes were wholly in pantomime, with a double "freeze" on the final curtain.

EDITOR'S NOTE

The problem of realism vs. romanticism cropped up in Mr. Casey's 11th-grade English class when the students complained about the numerous unhappy endings in the literature they had been reading. Possibly Hollywood producers, as well as CLEARING HOUSE readers, will be interested in the outcome of the students' court action against authors accused of the "crime of brutal realism." The trial occurred in Puyallup, Wash., High School.

No written script was used. All lines were *ad libbed*, which gave more originality and spontaneity to the production. It also helped to urge the class to make better than superficial interpretation of the parts. The students were all made up to fit the characters. The authors themselves were carefully studied from available photographs. A few wrinkles, eye shadows, and some highlighting achieved marvelous transformations. Mimeographed programs listed the cast, theme, and complete stage personnel. Literary titles were used, in keeping with the romantic theme.

In evaluating the original play no formal procedure was used. Since the production was direct, informal, and creative, a group critique seemed to be the best evaluative method. General comments were:

(1) It helped me to review better. (2) Poets seem more human now. (3) Realism has a definite place in poetry. (One girl was definitely *not* convinced.) (4) "I can speak more easily as a result of it." (5) The writers really know life: "You can see such situations in our town." (6) "We should have elaborated the theme more." (7) Dramatizing it was fun. (8) "I think the jury was unfair but I guess that is life." (9) "Mamie means more to me now. I felt that part." (10) The class agreed to do more dramas. Perhaps the most enlightening comment came from a boy who was only so-so in the poetry unit. His terse criticism was, "There's a Miniver Cheevy in every town."

Events & Opinion

Edited by THE STAFF

U. S. DOCUMENTS: For the first time in our history, announces Wayne C. Grover, Archivist of the United States, readable facsimiles of 3 great documents—The Declaration of Independence, the Constitution, and the Bill of Rights—have been included in one publication. It is *Charters of Freedom*, a handsome job with 11 × 14-inch pages. The text accompanying the documents gives briefly the historical background of each.

The facsimiles of the three handwritten papers are so legible that we spotted right away two editorial corrections made between the lines of the Declaration of Independence. One correction supplied two missing letters in a word. The other correction was made apparently because the founding fathers thought that a certain sentence would be made stronger by addition of the word "only."

We want to say that *Charters of Freedom* is a bargain at 25 cents a copy, or 20 cents each in lots of 500 or more. Check or money order should be made payable to the Treasurer of the United States and sent to the National Archives, Washington 25, D. C.

LOCKHEED SCHOLARSHIPS: Because the aircraft industry is handicapped by a shortage of engineers and administrators, the Lockheed Aircraft Corporation, Burbank, Cal., has established the Lockheed Leadership Fund, which will provide annually 20 four-year college scholarships for promising high-school seniors. Five of the scholarships are reserved for children of Lockheed employees. The other 15 awards will be made on the basis of nationwide competition.

Ten of the scholarships open to all high-school seniors are in engineering and science, while the other five are in such non-engineering fields as business administration, industrial relations, and cost accounting. Fifteen colleges and universities each will administer one of the scholarships. The awards provide full tuition and \$500 annually for school expenses.

Each of the 15 colleges and universities will set its own deadlines for applications and competitive examinations of candidates.

For science and engineering scholarships: Cal. Inst. of Tech., Pasadena; Carnegie Inst. of Tech., Pittsburgh; Cornell Univ., Ithaca, N. Y.; Ga. Inst. of Tech., Atlanta; Mass. Inst. of Tech., Cambridge; N. C. St. Coll. of Ag. & Eng., Raleigh; Purdue Univ., Lafayette, Ind.; Rensselaer Polytech. Inst., Troy,

N. Y.; Stanford Univ., Palo Alto, Cal.; and Univ. of Mich., Ann Arbor.

For non-science, non-engineering scholarships: Emory Univ., Atlanta; Harvard Univ., Cambridge, Mass.; Northwestern Univ., Evanston, Ill.; Pomona Coll., Claremont, Cal.; and Univ. of S. Cal., Los Angeles.

ANSWER: There is a fifth-grade boy in the Farragut School, San Diego, Cal., that we would like to meet. He seems to be a child worth knowing, according to the following report in the *San Diego City Schools*. We'd like to ask him a few questions of our own.

This boy's teacher was attempting "to relate the class organization to our form of government, and there was some hesitancy among the pupils as to just what our form of government is called." Finally this boy we've been talking about raised his hand, and said, "We live in a delinquency."

WHAT THE FUTURE HOLDS: If present birth rates continue, the present 17,000,000 enrolment in public elementary schools will rise to 30,000,000 in 25 years, according to Dr. N. L. Englehardt, Jr., of the research and educational consulting firm of Englehardt, Englehardt, and Leggett, as quoted in the *New York Post*. But quite an increasing torrent of pupils will be descending upon even the secondary schools before that time, says Dr. Englehardt, who has just completed a school population study. And he thinks that each community must do long-range planning now to avoid being swamped.

Kindergartens are packed this year as a result of 1947's record birth total—and that record has been broken in two succeeding years. By 1961, says Dr. Englehardt, junior-high-school enrolment will be 40% higher than at present, and by 1965 senior-high-school enrolments will be 50% higher than for the current school year.

SLOGAN: Many thousands, if not millions, of words have been written and spoken about the need for minimum state salary schedules for teachers. Now, says the Maine Teachers Association's *Newsletter*, the MTA's Legislative Committee is looking for a slogan that will compress the arguments into "a dozen words or so" that state legislators can grasp.

MARKING COMPOSITIONS: The rank and file

of English teachers, says Paul B. Diederich in *The English Record*, "do not read very well, do not read very much, write very badly themselves, and could distinguish good from poor student writing only if each were served up on a separate platter and carefully labeled." Mr. Diederich, of the Educational Testing Service, Princeton, N. J., says that one of his duties has been to read hundreds of student papers that were supposed to have been carefully annotated by English teachers in schools and colleges.

His impressions are that: About half of the papers had no comments—only a grade, and "the grade might as well have been drawn out of a hat." Other papers had a grade plus a fragment of comment, such as "Shows improvement." Some papers had comments scribbled in profusion between the lines and in the margins, but he wasn't able to decipher many of these. The grammar and spelling of the legible comments generally were no better than those of the lines they criticized "Worst of all, the comments willfully and persistently misunderstood what the student was trying to say, even when it was clearly enough written for anyone to understand."

Mr. Diederich admits that his own marking of compositions wouldn't be so good, "if, every time I made an assignment, I had 175 papers to grade."

STATE HISTORY: A pupil-compiled supplement to history textbooks is being planned under the supervision of the Idaho Curriculum Development and Textbook Committee, reports *Idaho Education News*. Under the plan, pupil committees will

interview some local pioneers, and other old-timers will be invited to speak before classes. From these interviews or talks students will write stories to be submitted to the office of the State curriculum director. This summer a committee will edit the stories, "determining between fact and fiction, and print both as supplements to the regular Idaho histories."

The project will be carried on for some years. Idaho was made a Territory less than 90 years ago, and has been a State for little more than 60 years. So quite a number of aging early settlers are still on hand to tell their stories.

NEGROES: *Negroes in the United States: Their Employment and Economic Status* is a 60-page bulletin of the Bureau of Labor Statistics describing recent national trends in the circumstances of Negroes in relation to that of whites. Copies may be obtained for 30 cents each from the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D. C.

GIDEON DISTRIBUTION: Distribution of the King James Version of the New Testament in the Rutherford, N. J., schools by the Gideon Society has been upheld by the Superior Court, says an Associated Press dispatch. Catholic and Jewish parents brought suit to halt distribution of the Bibles, which are commonly accepted by Protestants. The court, ruling in favor of the distribution, said that it might be "a bad policy," but that the Gideon project did not constitute "an illegal or unconstitutional interference with religious liberty."



No Convention Is Complete Without These Types

Every convention has its quota of Panting Participants who rush deliriously from meeting to meeting on a time schedule as tight as any Columbia Broadcasting executive ever devised.

These jet-propelled individuals are utterly incomprehensible to a group classified in this study as Lobby Loungers. Case hardened by many years of convention going, members of this latter group leave their deep-cushioned lobby chairs only to eat and sleep and would rather be caught dead than at a meeting.

By adroit questioning of passersby they manage to find out most of what goes on at the convention and are usually the earliest and most reliable source of information about election results.

It is useless for a newcomer to invite a Lobby Lounger to go to hear a speaker. The veteran will courteously but firmly decline, pointing out that no

matter what the announced topic, the speech will be about building citizenship in our youth. He has, he will continue, already heard a speech on that subject.

Akin to the Lobby Loungers, but far more numerous, are the Almost Persuaded group. These are persons who go to the auditorium, doubtless fully intending to attend the session. For some reason, however, they never get beyond the foyer. Here they jam in elbow to elbow with several hundred other Almost Persuaded folks and stand for three hours, talking as though they were to be sent to the salt mines at the stroke of midnight. Eager Beavers seated in the rear of the auditorium within easy earshot of the cascade of sound from the foyer would vote unanimously in favor of such a fate.—H. C. McFADYEN in North Carolina Education Association *News Bulletin*.



Book Reviews



ROBERT G. FISK and EARL R. GABLER, *Review Editors*

Geography of the World (rev. ed.), by LEONARD O. PACKARD, BRUCE OVERTON, and BEN D. WOOD. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1953. 498 pages + xiii pages, \$4.40.

This book is junior-high level; well edited; outline and presentation good. It would probably be better if the physical maps were made dimensionable and did not contain more than one idea. The book provides comprehensive coverage of the progress of mankind and of how the earth provides for man's needs.

The authors divide the United States into regions, giving historical development and showing how economic changes have been effected by geographical location, climate, and natural resources. Transportation, trade, and communication within the United States and the world over are shown by vivid descriptions and by maps of world sea lanes, air lines, and overseas telephone service. The workings of radar and television are interestingly told, supplemented by illustrations.

The other countries of the western hemisphere are depicted as neighbors, friends, and customers of the United States. Each country is treated separately as to development, natural resources, etc.

Europe is portrayed as a country in turmoil, showing some sections "then and now." The natural resources and potentialities of each country receive coverage.

The international cross-roads where Europe, Asia, and Africa meet are shown and their significance stressed.

The historical development of the countries of Asia and of Japan is treated separately. There are predictions of their future, in the light of natural resources, trade, transportation, and their relations to other countries.

The government and trade of Southwest Pacific Islands under United States trusteeship and in the British Dominion are discussed.

Africa is pictured as the "last frontier of nations." Helpful material at the end of each chapter—in the form of guides to study, topics for discussion, and work to be done—furnishes ideas and suggestions to enrich the social-studies program.

Many maps are interspersed throughout the book. In addition there is a map section in the back. It includes each continent and the United States in color.

The authors have shown how countries depend on each other; how closely they are knit together

by communication, transportation, and trade. Their book would be useful as a text, as source material, or as a guide for teachers in preparing units of work.

LAURA GALBRAITH
High School
High Springs, Fla.

The Ocean River, by HENRY CHAPIN and F. G. WALTON SMITH. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1952. 325 pages, \$3.50.

"There is a great artery of warm and foreign water which sweeps up the North Atlantic coast and across the wide Atlantic, called the Gulf Stream. It is a part of a greater system of interlocking currents and drifts within the salt ocean that helps regulate and sustain the life on land and sea of the Atlantic peoples. . . . This is the Ocean River . . . And this, a river of many meanings, is what we write about."

With these words, the authors—one a noted historian and anthropologist, the other a world authority on oceanography and marine biology—introduce their fascinating story of the Gulf Stream. It is a story based on the most accurate and comprehensive data, and told with interpretive and creative imagination, of the part which this mighty stream, equal to a thousand Mississippi, has played in the life of the North Atlantic and of its bordering continents.

This is not merely another good book about the sea. Here one finds not only the oceanography and biology of the North Atlantic, and the meteorology of the mighty "engine of the air" which drives its currents; the authors are concerned also with the influence of these currents on land life and on the course of human history. They trace the course of the earliest adventurers on the western ocean; the legend—if it be a legend—of the Lost Atlantis; the paths of pre-Columbian explorers, of Columbus and his successors; the era of conquest and colonization, with its rich gallery of rogues and heroes; and the development of modern commerce—all as affected by Atlantic currents. They are concerned with the fate of the American aborigines and of the African slaves brought over to fill the gap left by their destruction; the reaction of the discovery and exploitation of the New World on the Old; the place of the Atlantic in modern affairs; in a word, the

molding influence of the Ocean River on the history and civilization of Western man.

This is a book for scientist, historian, romancer, economist, philosopher, humanitarian; for students and teachers of modern civilization; for all who love the sea, and for everyone who appreciates a story well told. It would be a valuable addition to any library.

ROBERT H. ADAMS
Miami Senior High School
Miami, Fla.

Introduction to Music Education, by RUSSELL N. SQUIRE. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1952. 185 pages, \$3.25.

Dr. Russell N. Squire has given the music-education field a timely book in *Introduction to Music Education*. He has keen insight into all phases of music education, from the earliest grades through the college level. Particularly good is the chapter on the philosophy of music education.

The section on elementary music covers philosophy, psychology of appreciation, psychology of observation and learning, ear training, rhythmic training, the listening lesson, special music groups, and voice culture. Although the author has made some very definite statements on each of these matters, there may be some dissenting opinions on each of them.

In the section on junior-high-school music, the author says that one of the goals of the junior-high curriculum should be to provide for individual differences and that the general course in junior-high-school music must satisfy the need for individual exploration. He also suggests that the junior-high music teacher must be more than just a musician. He must be an educator and one who understands the adolescent and how music can play a part in the adolescent's future life.

The chapter on senior-high-school music might well be read by secondary-school administrators for help in selecting the right kind of person for a music position. Our author suggests that the skillful teacher who can demonstrate that he is both a good musician and an adequate performer is the ideal person for music teaching.

In the chapter on college music Doctor Squires makes the provocative statement that college instructors would do well to take a leaf out of the elementary-school music teacher's book.

For an invigorating, new kind of adventure into music education, I recommend *Introduction to Music Education*.

HOWARD R. HALVORSEN
Consultant in Music
Palo Alto Unified School Dist.
Palo Alto, Cal.

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Feelings Are Facts (An Intergroup Education pamphlet), by MARGARET M. HEATON.

New York: National Conference of Christians and Jews, 1952. 60 pages, 25 cents.

The old familiar song, "Nobody Knows the Trouble I've Seen," typifies very well the usually accepted attitudes toward feelings. Feelings have been thought of as something to be denied, to be avoided, and certainly to be concealed. Lately, however, those interested in mental hygiene have become more and more aware of the importance of feelings in human life, and of the need for recognizing and accepting feelings. This point of view has been well presented in the writings of Murphy, Baruch, Redl, and others.

In this booklet, first produced for the San Francisco Public Schools in 1951, and now republished by the National Conference of Christians and Jews, Miss Heaton relates this principle of mental hygiene to the improvement of intergroup relations and to the attainment of emotional maturity. Some guideposts are presented for classroom atmospheres that foster wholesome attitudes and that make individual adjustment more adequate. Teachers are not called upon to become therapists; they are, however, given practical suggestions for recognizing feelings, for bringing feelings into the open, and for using the classroom in a way which will give feelings their due place and their proper consideration.

While attention is paid to the feelings common to all children, special attention goes to the feelings of children of minority groups, feelings which are often unrecognized or disregarded.

In this era of troubled atmospheres, it is especially important that teachers be aware of the inner sensitivities of their students, and that some techniques for dealing with this aspect of personality should be available. This booklet is an excellent, well-written, introduction to this important area of human relations. Teachers will find *Feelings Are Facts* helpful and encouraging.

PHILIP ROTHMAN
Brooklyn College
Brooklyn, N.Y.

Cooperative Procedures in Learning, by ALICE MIEL and ASSOCIATES. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952. 512 pages, \$3.75.

This book is the report of an action research project done by teachers in the field in conjunction with the staff of the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation. It is a highly praiseworthy resource book for teachers who are using modern methods in elementary and secondary schools. Many

of the questions about planning that are unusually raised in study and discussion groups are answered: Where do children enter the planning process? How often and how much can children plan? What does "planning include? What objectives are accomplished? What role does the teacher play? What about content?

The answers to the above and other questions are developed out of documentation of actual experiences. These "stories" take the reader into real classrooms and enable him to "feel" the kind of climate which is created when pupil-teacher planning of content and activities replaces formalized use of course-of-study directed learning.

Planning is established as an essential part of problem solving. Problem solving requires cooperative group processes. Other processes which are described and discussed are group purposing, acting, and evaluating. Practical, realistic help is offered to teachers at their "trouble points."

There is no doubt that those who use this book will experience the author's purposes, which were: to encourage some to venture with cooperative procedures; to give new heart to some who have lost courage; to help others to set new sights and to accumulate and to pass on more understanding of the ways and results of group work.

GERTRUDE NOAR
Educational Consultant
Anti-Defamation League of
B'nai B'rith

Gaul Is Divided (historical novel of Caesar's time), by ESTHER FISHER BROWN. New York: William-Frederick Press, 1952. 263 pages, \$4.

The author without dates and isolated specifics has presented us with a unique historical novel of Vercingetorix, an Arvernian Chieftain of Gaul, who devotes his life attempting to unify the tribes of Gaul into a nation.

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than ever that this grade is the best place for the subject.—*Matt Lagerberg*, p. 538.

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Better English, by MAX J. HERZBERG, FLORENCE C. GUILD, J. N. HOOK, and ROBERT LOWELL STEVENS. Boston: Ginn and Co., 1953. Grade 10, 470 pages, \$2.64; Grade 11, 470 pages, \$2.72; Grade 12, 458 pages, \$2.80.

Block Printing on Fabrics, by FLORENCE HARVEY PETTIT. New York: Hastings House, 1952. 146 pages, \$5.00.

Building Health, by DOROTHEA M. WILLIAMS. Chicago: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1952. 431 pages, \$3.20.

General Shop Electricity (4th rev. ed.), by A. W. DRAGOO and C. B. PORTER. Bloomington, Ill.: McKnight & McKnight Publishing Co., 1952. 119

pages, paper bound, \$1.25.

Henry the Fourth, Part I, edited by BERTRAM NEWMAN ("The New Clarendon Shakespeare Series"). London E.C.4: Oxford University Press, 1952. 192 pages.

Materials and Processes, by MAX KOHN and MARTIN J. STARFIELD. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1952. 483 pages, \$3.48.

Principles of Electricity (rev. ed.), by WENDELL H. CORNETET. Bloomington, Ill.: McKnight & McKnight Publishing Co., 1952. 341 pages, \$4.

Radio English, by FLORENCE FELTON FRENCH, WILLIAM B. LEVENSON, and VERA COBER ROCKWELL. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1952. 368 pages, \$3.60.

"Reading Today Series," by ETHEL M. ORR, EVELYN T. HOLSTON, and STELLA S. CENTER. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1952. *Discovering New Fields in Reading and Literature*, 628 pages, \$3.00; *Exploring Literature Old and New*, 654 pages, \$3.00; *Progress in Reading and Literature*, 660 pages, \$3.00.

Recollections of Three Reigns, by SIR FREDERICK PONSEBY. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1952. 509 pages, \$5.00.

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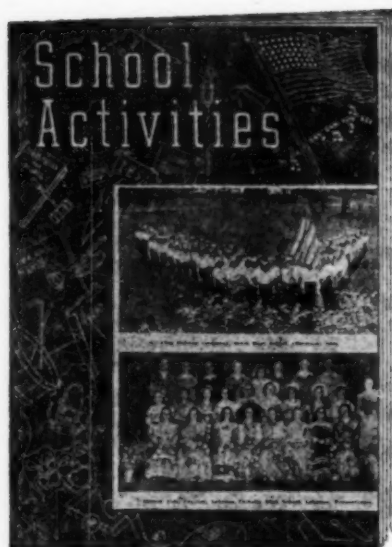
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